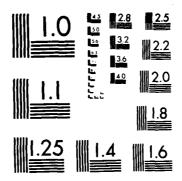
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UNDERDRAIN SYSTEMS FOR LARGE STRUCTURES

PLACED BELOW THE GROUNDWATER TABLE

A Special Research Problem

Presented to

The Faculty of the School of Civil Engineering Georgia Institute of Technology

CONTRACT # N-0022

by

DEC 0 3 1986

Gary N. Pirtle

August, 1986

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GEORGIA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

A UNIT OF THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM OF GEORGIA

SCHOOL OF CIVIL ENGINEERING

ATLANTA, GEORGIA 30332





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Georgia Institute of Technology

bу

Gary N. Firtle

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Science in Civil Engineering

Approved:

Dr. Richard D. Barksdale/Dat

Dr. Robert C. Jackus/Date

Dr Muthor M. Aral/Date 8/25/86

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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K833

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Finally, I would like to express my unending thanks to my wife, \Box Judy and my family for their patience, encouragement and support, which has made this endeavor all the more worthwhile.



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ABSTRACT

This research is a study in seepage analysis for engineered structures built below the groundwater table; in particular an analysis of underdrain systems for such structures. General seepage theories and design considerations are discussed as part of the literature review. Also design concepts and methods of analysis are covered which gives a brief overview of design considerations and techniques which are currently used for this type of seepage problem.

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Key variables to the design of an underdrain system are studied in detail by using a two dimensional, steady state finite element model. Such variables studied are drain spacing, drain width, anisotropic hydraulic conductivity, thickness of the aquifer, head differential and sloping aquifers.

Results are presented in the form of dimesionless plots and nomographs for drain discharge and free surface plots for the different variables studied.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

For civil engineered structures which interact with soil, a major consideration for design is the presence of groundwater. Dams, buildings, dry dock facilities, underground structures, pavements and earth retaining walls must be designed considering the quantity of seepage, the position of the free surface, seepage forces and seepage control. Good drainage incorporated in the design of these and other structures can often benefit through substantial cost reductions as well as increasing the safety and usefulness of the structure.

Many embarassing and sometimes disastrous problems often result from man's endeavors to control seepage. Saturated soil backfills have caused many retaining wall failures due to increased hydrostatic pressures following extensive rainfall. Highways and roadways prematurely deteriorate and fail due to trapped water in the pavement section. Basement slabs, pond liners and drydock facilities have been severely damaged by hydrostatic uplift pressures and seepage. Most dam and slope failures can be attributed to excessive seepage or uplift pressures. These examples and untold others indicate that good seepage and drainage control together with an adequate

understanding of groundwater is a key element in the design of most civil engineering structures.

Many civil engineering structures are located in areas where groundwater causes problems of uplift and seepage. The design therfore must consider all problems associated with high groundwater and what measures must be taken to assure the integrity of the overall design. Casagrande(1965), in talking about engineering risks, concludes that, "The margin of safety that we incorporate into our structures should bear a direct relationship to the magnitude of potential losses, and it must also take into account the range of uncertainty involved."

This important concept hopefully will be considered throughout the presentation of facts and data obtained in this paper.

Prior to the 20th century, analysis of seepage and the control of drainage for enginerring structures was done by experienced engineers who based their designs on trial and error methods which sometimes were successful and sometimes not. Though experience has proven to be very neccesary and helpful in the design of drainage systems, very useful tools employed today are numerical methods such as finite element and finite difference techniques which require the use of the digital computer. Their problem solving capabilities have made possible solving very complicated and complex groundwater problems.

The purpose of this research is to study the design of underdrain systems for large structures placed below the groundwater table. In chapter two, basic seepage theories and design requirements, designs concepts and useful methods of analysis are presented as a brief literature review. This chapter covers critical aspects of designs that should be considered and contains a brief review of methods used by geotechnical engineers.

In chapter three, the finite element program developed by Dr. M. Aral, of the School of Civil Engineering at Georgia
Institute of Technology, is discussed describing how the design of building underdrain systems can be modeled using this technique. This finite element program made possible studying effects of key variables such as permeability, hydraulic head, drain geometry, depth of groundwater, and anisotropic soils. Program verification is performed using another program, SEEP84, modified by the Civil Engineering Department at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, for the microcomputer. Dupuit's solution is also used to compare selected cases with the finite element programs.

Chapter four presents data generated from the finite element study such as position of the free surface and flow quantity for selected systems of underdrains suitable for use beneath a foundation. The data is presented in the form of charts and nomographs to be used as a guide for underdrain system design.

Chapter five summarizes the results of the study and presents appropriate conclussions.

Appendix A contains program documentation for the finite element program used in this study which details to the user, documentation to the use of the program. Appendix B presents example input and output data generated by this study.

CHAPTER 2

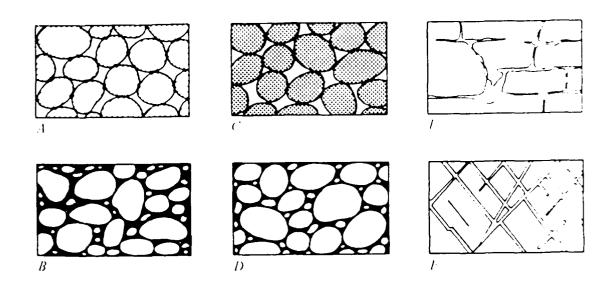
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Seepage Theories and Design Requirements

Groundwater

Soils, sometimes described as a porous media, is a mass made up of solid matter having interconnected voids, passages, fissures or pore spaces. These pore spaces can be filled by a liquid and or a gaseous phase. Figure 2.1 shows several typical soil and rock indices which depicts how pore spaces can act as conduits for water or subcapillary openings in which water may be held by adhesive capillary forces (Meinzer, 1942).

The soil mass forms a complex network of irregular passages through which the fluid may flow. A key parameter of groundwater movement is the porosity of the soil. As gravity acts on the fluid, it moves through the pore spaces at varving rates through each open pore space. From a macro scale, this flow has been mathematically described by several authors (Bear. 1981; Terzaghi, 1943; Cedergren, 1977; Harr, 1962; Bouwer, 1978; Freeze, 1971).



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Figure 2.1 Diagram showing soil and rock interstices. A. Well sorted sand deposit having high porosity; B. Poorly sorted deposit having low porosity; C. Farticles that may be porous themselves; D. Deposit whose porosity may be diminished by deposition of mineral matter in the interstices; E. Rock that is porous by solution; F. Rock that is porous by fracturing (after Meinzer, 1942)

Moisture content in soils can vary with depth from the surface, as shown by Figure 2.2. Most seepage problems considers the zone of saturation which is the zone where the soil mass is completely saturated. The terms groundwater level, phreatic water level, water table, free surface or groundwater surface are all synonymous to denote the level of water where atmospheric pressure exists.

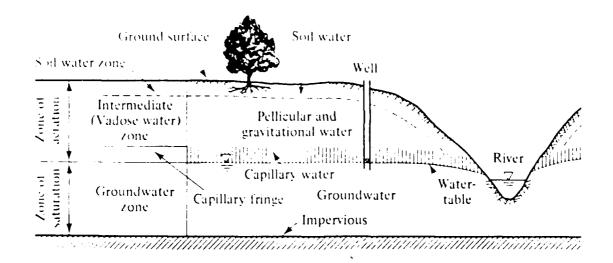
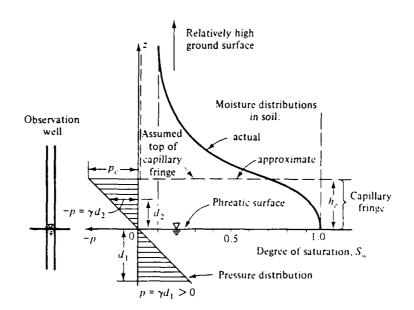


Figure 2.2 Subsurface groundwater distribution. (after Bear, 1979)

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In dealing with capillary fringe in fine grained soils the height of water can very significant. As the pore diameter decreases, the capillary rise increases. Although the soil is considered unsaturated, the soils moisture content will be higher with depth.

The zone of capillary rise and fringe zone may contain large quantities of water for fine grained soils. Water removal by drainage, due to capillary forces, may be difficult for such fine grained soils. Figure 2.3 shows how the actual moisture distribution is approximated by a step distribution. This approximation of the capillary fringe level above the free surface, $h_{\rm C}$, is often neglected in some seepage problems. Several emperical methods, based on grain size diameter and porosity of soil, are available to estimate $h_{\rm C}$ (Mavis and Tsui, 1939; Polubarinova, 1952, 1962; Silin Bekchurin, 1958).



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Figure 2.3 Approximation of phreatic surface and capillary fringe zone. (after Bear, 1979)

Many textbooks on seepage and groundwater discuss water bearing and retention capibilities of the capillary fringe and movement of moisture through this zone (Terzaghi, 1943; Kovacs, 1981; Sowers, 1979). However, when this height of water is very small relative to the total thickness of the aquifer, the capillary fringe is sometimes neglected. The geotechnical engineer should be concerned with the unsaturated—saturated flow condition when the stability of the engineered structure is to be analyzed, such as a dam.

Groundwater analysis for seepage problems must consider the quantity of water to be drained, the soils resistance to drainage, and what effects the drainage may have on the soil and the structure. Movement of groundwater can be categorized

either as seepage; capillary rise or flow; percolation; or turbulent flow. For this study, only movement of groundwater by seepage is considered.

Design Requirements

Structures built below the watertable must be designed considering the following:

- (1) structural ability to withstand the applied hydrostatic water pressures,
- (2) drainage control which short-cuts the flow or movement of groundwater from getting to the structure,
- (3) drainage control which is incorporated with the overall design to remove the groundwater,
- (4) assure water velocities be small enough to prevent excess particle migration and erosion.

Savings of dollars, time and natural resources can be recognized when structures can be considered on dry, stable material; in addition to thinner basement slab thicknesses may be used.

Darcy's Law

In 1856, Henry Darcy investigated the flow of water in vertical homogeneous sand. This work has developed the most fundamental relationship which is still used in seepage analysis today.

Darcy's Law states:

$$Q = k i A \qquad (2.1)$$

where Q (L^3/T) is a volume discharge or flow of a given cross-sectional area, A (L^2) in a given time. The discharge is also a function of the hydraulic gradient, i (L/L) and a resistance coefficient, k (L/T), the permeability of the soil. Investigators, Muskat (1937), Taylor (1949) and Leonards (1962), have concluded that Darcy's Law is valid where velocities are low or when flow is laminar, i.e. Reynolds number less than 10.

Hydraulic Conductivity

The soils resistance to flow or the coefficient of porportionality, k, for Darcy's Law, is also called the hydraulic conductivity. Hydraulic conductivity is a coefficient which expresses the ease or resistance the water has flowing through the soil. It depends on the soils matrix and fluid properties of the permeant.

Many researchers have performed tests to attempt to develope empirical relationships of the soils properties to hydraulic conductivity. Some of these properties considered are grain or pore size distribution, shape of the grains or pores, tortuosity, specific surface and porosity (Mitchell, 1976; Kozeny, 1927; Carman, 1956; Cedergren, 1977; Kovacs, 1981). All report that careful field investigation and careful conductivity studies are necessary for each design. Figure 2.4 is presented to show some characteristics of various soil types and most important, methods for determination of selected properties (Terzaghi and Peck, 1948).

In the unsaturated zone, the hydraulic conductivity, moisture content and pressure head is extremely complex and not well understood. Again, field measurement is the best method for obtaining the best parameters, such as the use of theistor psychrometer (Kay and Low, 1970) or gamma ray absorption techniques (Ferguson, 1970; Aral, 1983). However, many empirical formulas have been developed to relate the soil parameters to a relative hydraulic conductivity of the un-saturated zone (Fovacs, 1981; Irmay, 1954; Childs and Collis-George, 1950; Gardner, 1958; Brooks and Corey, 1966; Maslia, 1980; Reeves and Duriquid, 1975).

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After A. Casagrande and R. E. Fadum

Permeability and Drainage Characteristics for Various Soil Types Figure 2.4

2.2 Design Concepts

Seepage Forces

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The effects of water on the soil and the structure is controlled by the pressures in the water. In soil mechanics, the water pressure is defined as neutral stress. For water not moving, or steady state, the pressure can be computed from the basic equation of hydrostatics

$$h = \frac{P}{N_w} + z \qquad (2.2)$$

where h, energy head, is equal to the positic . z, plus the pressure head or piezometric head, F/\S_w . Typically in seepage designs, the velocity head is very small and may be neglected. Then the pressure head plus elevation is equal to head, h (Cedergren, 1977).

For the condition that water pressure is greater than the total load, say of the soil and structure, the pressures are termed uplift pressures and liquifaction can occur. Therfore the control of uplift pressures must be a primary design consideration.

Critical Velocity

According to Darcy's Law, the discharge velocity of seepage through soil is

$$\vee_{d} = k \times i \qquad . \tag{2.3}$$

Seepage is only occurring through the pores and voids.

Therefore the true seepage velocity should be a function of the porosity of the soil mass. Re-writing equation (2.3) the seepage velocity can be expressed as

$$v_{\rm sn} = \frac{k \times i}{\ell_0}$$
 (2.4)

where η_e is the effective porosity.

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In flow conditions, the saturation of soil is moving into or away from the unsaturated soil. The capillary head, h $_{\rm c}$, is working with gravity to increase the hydraulic gradient. For this condition the hydraulic gradient can be expressed

$$i = \frac{h + h_c}{L}$$
 (2.5)

Figure 2.5 depicts this condition for flow through a sand.

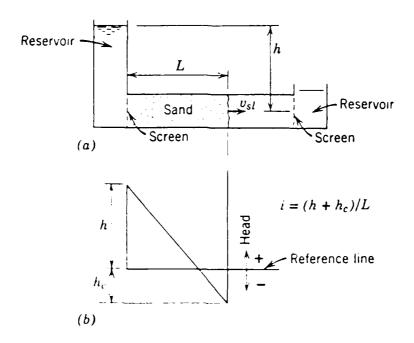


Figure 2.5 Force of saturation.

Boiling occurs when seepage pressures in an upward direction exceeds the downward force of the soil. This must be analysed for all seepage designs. Critical hydraulic gradient, i $_{\rm c}$, can be expressed

$$i_{C} = \frac{\Upsilon_{T} - \Upsilon_{W}}{\Upsilon_{W}} = \frac{\Upsilon_{b}}{\Upsilon_{W}} (2.6)$$

where $\&_T$ = total unit weight of soil $\&_W$ = unit weight of water $\&_b$ = buoyant unit weight of soil(NAVFAC,DM-7.1).

Filters

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A very important design consideration is the possibility of seepage forces moving erodible soils and rock, termed piping. Betram (1940), under Terzaghi and Casagrande, established the following criteria for filter design, based on grain size.

$$\frac{D_{15} \text{ (of filter)}}{D_{85} \text{ (of soil)}} < 4 \text{ to } 5 < \frac{D_{15} \text{ (of filter)}}{D_{15} \text{ (of soil)}}$$
 (2.7)

This relationship is represented by Figure 2.6 to illustrate the prevention of piping by filters (Cedergren, 1977).

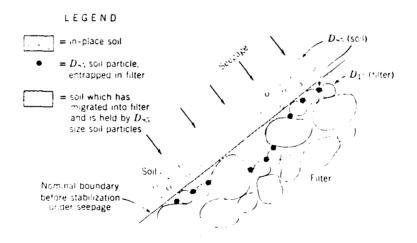


Figure 2.6 Illustration of prevention of piping by filters. (after Rankilor, 1981)

The ratio of D_{15} of a filter to the D_{85} of a soil is considered the piping ratio. Many authors and organizations have established other criteria for filters, similar to that of equation (2.7)—(U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1941, 1955; U.S Bureau of Reclamation, 1955; Sherard, et al., 1963; Cedergren, 1977; Thanikachalam and Sakthivadivel, 1974).

Filters must be designed to meet two major requirements; (1) they must be safe with respect to erosion and piping, and (Γ) must have sufficient discharge capibillities to remove the seepage quickly and efficiently. This must be done without inducing high seepage forces or hydrostatic pressures. The right side of equation (2.7) states that the D $_{15}$ size of a filter should be at least 4 to 5 times the D $_{15}$ of the soil. This insures that the hydraulic conductivity of the filter and drains is sufficient to prevent the build-up of large seepage forces and hydrostatic pressures.

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There is a wide range of engineering properties of materials to be considered for filter drainage systems designs. Properties which may influence hydraulic conductivity are grain size, density, mineralogical composition, the nature of the permeant or the degree of saturation. Much work has gone toward methods for determination and factors which influence hydraulic conductivity (Milligan, 1975; Lambe and Whitman, 1969; Yemington, 1963; Bouwer, 1978). There is still much research necessary to understand better this property of soil.

Trench Drains

For the application of drainage for structures built below the water table, the use of trench drains, which acts as collectors of the seepage or may contain collector pipes, is a very efficient method. Figure 2.7 shows the typical cross-section which may be considered for the application of this type of drainage system. Trench drains will be discussed further in the report and their utilization for this application will be studied in more detail.

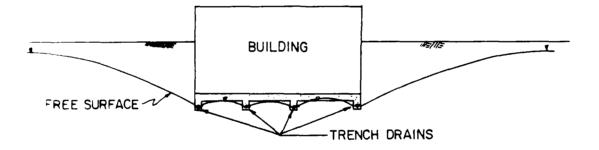


Figure 2.7 Typical application of a trench drain system.

Geosynthetics

Today, new synthetic membranes are used to serve the purpose of either filtration or seperation. This two factors are very important parameters for most seepage problems. Figure 2.8 shows comparisons of some of the features of membrane-wrapped drains to conventional granular pipe drains. Also Figure 2.9 shows the bridging effect caused by good seperation of the larger materials and smaller particles.

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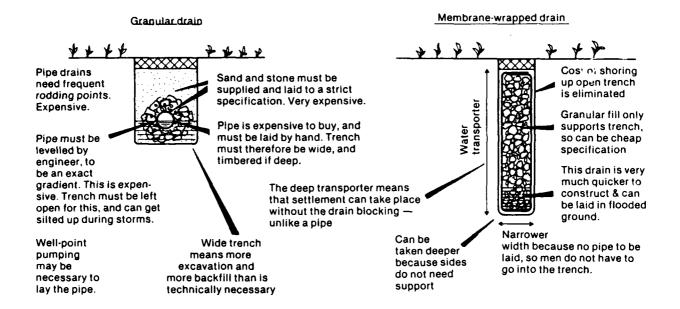


Figure 2.8 Conventional granular pipe trench drain and membrane-wrapped trench drain. (after Rankilor, 1981)

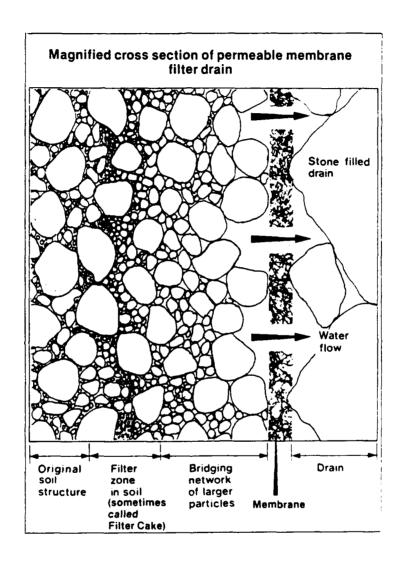


Figure 2.9 Bridging effects caused by use of membrane filter material. (after Rankilor, 1981)

A good representation of how geosynthetics combine action of seperation and filtration, is shown by Figure 2.10. As water has more area of flow with the membrane, the seepage can be considered to be at a faster rate or drain quicker (Rankilor, 1981)

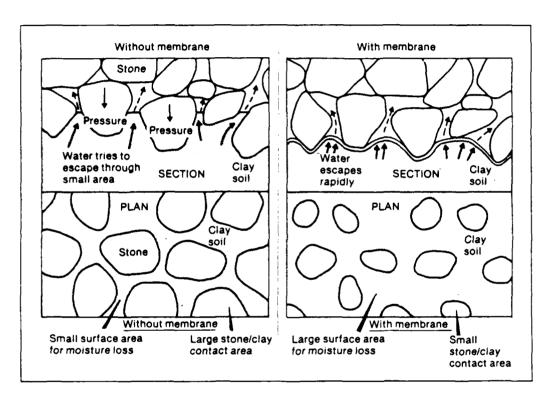


Figure 2.10 Separation effects by using a membrane. (after Rankilor, 1981)

2.3 Methods of Analysis

In analyzing seepage problems; geometry, boundary conditions, soil parameters, flow quantities and location of the free surface must be quantified by some means. Though this involves many considerations, the engineer must gain reasonable safe results for the design.

Through the history of seepage analysis many techniques and methods have been developed, such as graphical, analytical and numerical solutions. Still used today is the graphical method of flow net construction. However with the complex geometries envolved and via the speed of computers, numerical models have been developed as very useful tools for the engineer.

Flow Nets

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Many researchers have developed methods for analyzing flow through porous media. The oldest, developed by Casagrande and Terzaghi (1937), is the use of flow nets, a graphical approach to seepage analysis.

The continuity equation in the form

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0$$
 (2.7)

shows for a Cartesian coordinate system, the quantity of water entering an element must equal that leaving. The terms u, v and w are discharge velocity components of directions x, y and z, respectfully.

According to Darcy's Law, expressed by equation (2.3), the component of discharge velocity can be expressed

$$u = -k - \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$$
, $v = -k - \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$, $w = -k - \frac{\partial h}{\partial z}$ (2.8)

Substituting into equation (2.7)

$$\partial \frac{-k(\partial h/\partial x)}{\partial x} + \partial \frac{-k(\partial h/\partial y)}{\partial y} + \partial \frac{-k(\partial h/\partial z)}{\partial z} = 0$$
 (2.9)

If k is constant for the element and then expressed in a typical two-dimensional form, equation (2.9) becomes the common Laplace equation.

$$\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial y} = 0$$
 (2.10)

The general condition of flow analysis using flow nets is represented by Figure 2.11. Rules and good examples are presented in many textbooks (Cedergren, 1977; Harr, 1967).

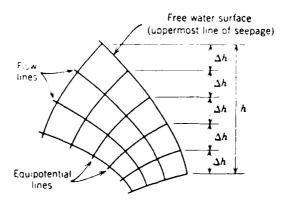


Figure 2.11 General condition for flow lines and equipotential lines in flow net construction.

Dupuit Assumptions

For unconfined seepage problems the engineer must calculate the location of the free surface. Many problems of flow have been approximated based on the Dupuit theory of unconfined flow. Dupuit (1893) assumed; (1) for small inclinations of the line of seepage, the streamlines can be taken as horizontal and equal potential lines vertical, and (2) the hydraulic gradient was equal to the slope of the free surface and invarient with depth (Harr, 1962).

Harr (1962) gives many example problems and has derived the condition of free surface elevations as shown by Figure 2.12.

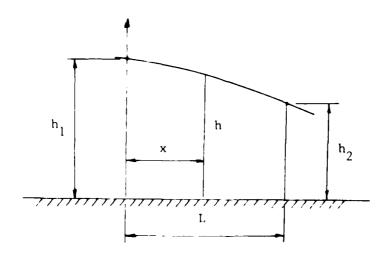


Figure 2.12 Simple free surface notation.

In the case of Figure 2.12 the Dupuit formula is expressed as

$$q = k - \frac{h_1^2 - h_2^2}{2!}$$
 (2.11)

Many other reports and textbooks have presented charts and nomagraphs based on these assumptions. Later in this study a nomograph for a simple trench drain with blanket drain solution developed by the Federal Highway Administration (1980) will be presented.

Numerical Analysis

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Flow through porous media has been approximated by many authors using ordinary non-linear differential equations and partial differential equations. Coupled with the speed of the computor, numerical solutions to many seepage problems have been developed. It should be pointed out that complex mathematical problems solved by numerical methods, are only as accurate as the math model can represent the conceptions and phenomina of seepage flow. In most cases, simplification is the rule, and numerical models can only be treated as approximations to the actual occurances. Nevertheless, the number crunching capibilities and time savings involved gives the engineer much needed time for the true analysis of the seepage problem.

The analytical and graphical methods mentioned previously are sometimes difficult and limited to flow systems which are

relativly simple. In actual field conditions, the soils may be heterogeneous and anisotropic and boundary conditions very complex. These conditions make closed form methods very difficult and many simplifications would have to be made. However, with the numerical models, these complexities can be easily handled and many more check cases can be made in much less time.

Finite Difference Methods

Many numerical computer models have been developed using finite difference methodology. Since the classic work of Peaceman and Rachford (1955), the oil industry has sponsored many studies on model development. A good historical background of the finite difference methods developed in seepage analysis is giving by Huyakorn (1983). Worth mentioning are the works of Cooley (1971) and Freeze (1971) in the development of other finite difference models. These models solve for the free surface and treat the saturated-unsaturated flow as an immobile air phase.

Finite Element

The finite element method for solving subsurface flow has been widely used and researched be soils engineers and groundwater hydrologists. The program used in this research and discussed in more detail in Chapter 3 is a finite element model.

Most finite element models are built on the Galerkin method. Some earlier finite element models for steady state and saturated flow were developed by Desai and Abel (1972), Conner and Brebbia (1977) and Zienkiewicz (1977). Pinder and Frind (1972) used isoparametric quadrilateral elements with the Galerkin's technique. Neuman (1973, 1974) used a four node quadrilateral element. A good reference for other works in the finite element models that have been developed is reported in Huyakorn and Pinder (1983) and Heijde (1985).

Some significant works were those of Taylor and Brown (1967) where a finite element model was developed for seepage through a dam solving for the free surface. The flow was only considerd for the saturated zone in this model. Freeze (1971) demonstrated that the conditions of the unsaturated zone may strongly influence the position of the free surface and results obtained not considering the capillary action for this case could be in error. Fredlund and Morgenstern (1976) developed improved constitutive equations for an unsaturated soil. Lam and Fredlund, etal (1984) presented additional theories and numerical development for further modeling techniques to consider the unsaturated zone in seepage analysis.

CHAPTER 3

FINITE ELEMENT STUDY

3.1 Finite Element Program Theory

Introduction

Finite element analysis of seepage problems can be described as follows (Huyakon and Finder, 1983):

- (1) A discrete number of interconnected nodes to define a series of sub-regions or elements. These can take the form of triangles, quadrilateral or rectangular shapes which are so spaced to define the geometric boundaries and soil types.
- (2) A matrix expression is developed to relate flow variables to each node of the elements. The mathematical expression may be of the form of either a variational or weighted function. A weighted residual function is used in the Galerkin method (Conner and Brebbia, 1977).
- (3) A set of algebraic equations that describe the entire global system is applied to assemble the element matrices.

 These equations are derived to consider compatible conditions at each node shared be each adjoining element.
- (4) Boundary conditions of flow are incorporated to reflect appropriate limits to the global matrix equations.
- (5) The resulting set of simultaneous algebraic equations are solved by some alogrithm method. Many algorithyms have

been used to efficiently take advantage of the banded and symmetric features of the coefficient matrix (Bathe and Wilson, 1976).

The finite element method has great potential in seepage analysis problems, in that the complex geometries of flow regions can be easily constructed via nodes and elements. This chapter will present the general theories and formulation of equations for the model used in this study.

Program Theory

A finite element program developed by Dr. Mustusfa Aral of the School of Civil Engineering, Georgia Institute of Technology, was used to study the flow and variables involved for subsurface drains as earlier described. This program was used to see effects of different parameters in the analysis performed. The program was operated on the Georgia Institute of Technology main-frame CDC CYBER computer. A complete user's guide for the program is included as Appendix A-1. Also example input and output used in this study is included by Appendix B-1. The formulation for the program presented here was summarized from a previous study (Aral, Sturm and Fulford, 1981).

This model only considers the flow condition of the free surface being the point where the water level is at atmospheric pressure. In other words, this model does not treat the

unsaturated zone of the soil. For this study the flow continum is modeled to determine the quantity of flow at each drain and to determine the free surface location between each of the drains. This model also computed the velocities at each element for a good check.

Equations of Flow

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Darcy's Law is used as the basic relationship governing groundwater flow. Flow is assumed to be laminar and the inertial forces are negligible compared to viscous forces. Rewriting Darcy's Law in the cartesian coordinate system:

where \vec{V} is seepage velocity, h is piezometric head and K the hydraulic conductivity. In the two dimensional case, equation (3.1) can be written as

$$v = -K_{ii} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}, \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (3.2)$$

where K_{ij} is a conductivity tensor.

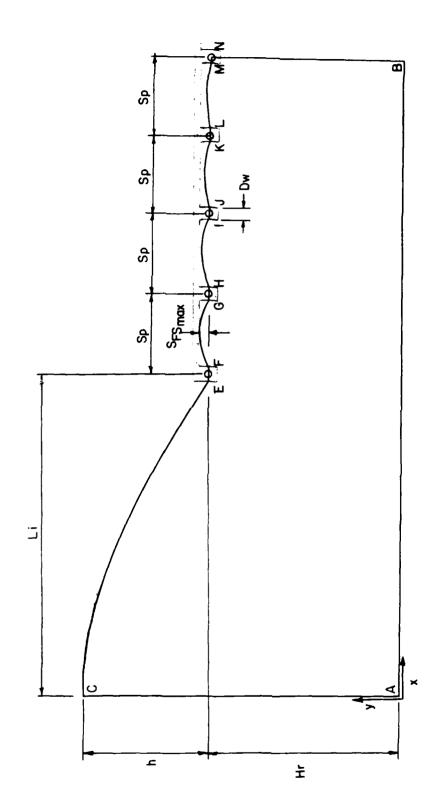
The continuity equation for the flow in an element of soil can be expressed

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\circ_{i}) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\cap \circ), \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (3.3)$$

where η is porosity of the soil and ρ is the density of the fluid. Assuming the fluid and soil particles are incompressible, equation (3.2) and (3.3) can be used for the following expression in the two-dimensional form:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} = \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_{i}} = 0, \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (3.5)$$

Figure 3.1 can be referred to for notation of the key variables used is this study.



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Figure 3.1 Typical Underdrain System with Variable Notation

Boundary Conditions

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For free surface problems, which is the case for this study, the exact location of the phreatic surface is not known at the beginning of the solution. Location of the free surface is an iterative process using two independent boundary conditions available at the free surface. The line of seepage at the free surface is the upper streamline of the flow domain. At every point along this streamline the pore pressure is at atmospheric pressure and therefore the piezometric head equals the elevation head. Also the flow across this boundary is zero because of it being a streamline.

Considering the seepage domain as depicted by Figure 3.1, the steady state boundary conditions can be described as follows:

- (a) Impervious Boundary (AB): The program considers this boundary as a streamline where velocity to this boundary equals zero.
- (b) <u>Constant Head Boundaries</u> (AC) and (EF): Constant hydrostatic pressure is exerted on these boundaries where total piezometric head is constant, i.e. equal to the water level in a prezometric tube.
- (c) Phreatic Surface (CE), (FG), (HI), (JK) and (LM): This boundary is a combination of both cases (a) and (b) above. By iteration, described later, both conditions must be satisfied independently.

(d) <u>Seepage Faces</u> (EF), (GH), (IJ), (KL) and (MN): Seepage forces occur at these boundary faces where water exits through the soil continum, i.e. trench drains. Therfore streamlines of flow must be normal to these boundaries.

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3.2 Finite Element Formulation

General Equations

The first step in solving the seepage problem by the finite element method is to discretize the flow region into a finite number of subregions called elements. Using finite elements, equilibrium equations must be made to handle the geometries involved. This results in a set of simultaneous algebraic equations rather than differential equations. Figure 3.2 depicts the quadrilateral elements used for this program and shows how four six nodal triangles are formed internal to the program. A more detailed description is of finite element equations and formulations can be found in Zienkiewicz (1971), Desai (1972) and Aral (1974, 1976).

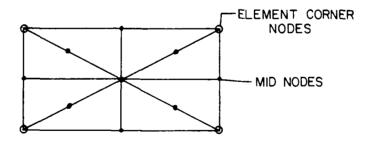


Figure 3.2 Typical element and nodes

A finite element approximation to equation (3.5) can be written through a variational approach. Assuming Dirichlet and Neuman boundary conditions, and considering the two dimensional case of steady flow, the following equations can be expressed:

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$$h = h$$
 on S, (3.7)

and
$$V_n = -\left(\kappa_{11} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \alpha_{n1} + \kappa_{22} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \alpha_{n2}\right) = \overline{V}_n$$
 on S_2 (3.7)

where \bar{h} is the specified Direchlet boundary condition in terms of piezometric head; \bar{V}_n is the velocity in the direction normal to the boundary; α_{n1} and α_{n2} are the direction cosines of the normal with respect to x_1 and x_2 ; and S_1 and S_2 indicate respective boundaries of the domain. From equations (3.5) and (3.7), the following variational statement can be written:

$$\iint_{A} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial_{x_{1}}} \left(\kappa_{11} \frac{\partial h}{\partial_{x_{1}}} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{2}} \left(\kappa_{22} \frac{\partial h}{\partial_{x_{2}}} \right) \right\} \delta_{hdx_{1}} dx_{2}$$

$$= \int_{S_{2}} \left\{ v_{n} - \overline{v_{n}} \right\} \delta_{hdS} \qquad (3.8)$$

Integrating by parts one obtains

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$$\iint_{A} \left\{ \kappa_{11} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_{1}} \frac{\partial \delta h}{\partial x_{1}} + \kappa_{22} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_{2}} \frac{\partial \delta h}{\partial x_{2}} \right\} dx_{1} dx_{2}
- \int_{S_{2}} \overline{V}_{n} \delta h dS = 0$$
(3.9)

Since from earlier discussed boundary conditions as for this -- problem studied, $V_{\rm n}=0$. Thus, equation (3.9) can be further simplified by eliminating the boundary intregrals.

Assuming equation (3.9) is written for a single element, matrix equations can be generated using an interpolation function for approximating h over an element. The interpolation function used in this model is given as

$$h = N_k h_k = 1, 2, 3, ... 6$$
 (3.10)

where h_k 's are the unknown nodal values of the dependent variable and N $_k$ is the interpolating polynomial used to approximate h in an element.

For a typical six-modal triangle element these polynomials are given as

$$N_{i} = \xi_{i}(2\xi_{i}-1)$$
 $i = 1,2,3$ (3.11)

and
$$N_{i+3} = 4 \xi_i \xi_j$$
 j = 2,3,1 (3.12)

where $\xi_1,\,\xi_2$, and ξ_3 are area condinates defined by the following relations

$$\xi_1 = \frac{A}{A} = \frac{A}{A}$$

where A_1 , A_2 and A_3 are the areas of the three subtriangles subtended by the point (P) and the corners, the index on (A) designating the opposite corner numbers, and A is the area of the triangle (123) shown in Figure 3.3.

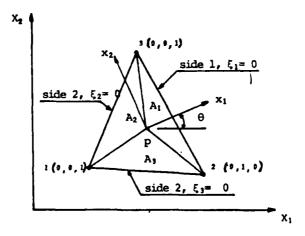


Figure 3.3 Area coordinates.

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To simplify the resultant equations, the origin of the local axis which defines the local coordinates of the element, nodes are placed at the centroid of the element and the principle axis are inclined angle θ in the direction of local anisotropy.

Substituting equation (3.10) into equation (3.9) the final form of the approximating equations in an element can be expressed. The stationary condition of equation (3.9) is obtained by equating the first partial derivatives of the function, with respect to the undetermined parameters, h_i , to zero:

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$$I^{e}(h), h_{j} = \iint_{Ae} \left\{ \kappa_{11} \frac{\partial N_{i}}{\partial x_{1}} \frac{\partial N_{j}}{\partial x_{1}} + \kappa_{22} \frac{\partial N_{i}}{\partial x_{2}} \frac{\partial N_{j}}{\partial x_{2}} \right\} h_{i} dx_{1} dx_{2} ,$$

$$i, j = 1, 2, 3, ... 6 \qquad (3.14)$$

This results in a six by six element stiffness matrix, S^e , and a six by one element load vector F^e .

The six by six element matrix equations of equation (3.14) is written

$$[S^e]$$
 $\{h^e\}$ = $\{F^e\}$ (3.15)

where

$$\mathbb{C}^{e} = \iint_{A^{e}} \left\{ \kappa_{11} \frac{\partial N_{i}}{\partial x_{1}} \frac{\partial N_{j}}{\partial x_{1}} + \kappa_{22} \frac{\partial N_{i}}{\partial x_{2}} \frac{\partial N_{j}}{\partial x_{2}} \right\} dx_{1} dx_{2},$$

$$\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j} = 1, 2, 3, \dots 6 \qquad (3.16)$$

The same procedure is taken for all elements. Then the total stiffness matrix is arrived at by combining the element stiffness matrices using structural assembly techniques (Zienkwicz, 1971)

For a grid of elements, a system of banded simultaneous equations results:

(S)
$$\{h\} = \{F\}$$
 (3.17)

where [S] is the global matrix of cofficients which incorporates the properties of the materials and the geometry of the elements; {h} is the vector of the unknown h's at the nodes; and {F} is the load vector. After the introduction of appropriate boundary conditions, this system of equations can now be solved by computations for the unknowns, h, yielding the piezometric head distribution in the solution domain.

Free Surface Computation

The flow domain must initially be established assuming an arbitrary free surface, i.e. the user initially estimates the free surface loacation. All boundary conditions are solved for the preset conditions of the problem. The nodes which are not fixed are allowed to move, where during the adjustment the interior nodes are also moved in order not to have distortion of the elements. Then additional iterations are made until all boundary conditions and user prescribed error correlations have been met for the configuration.

3.3 Variables and Dimensional Analysis

The variables investigated in this study are shown in Figure 3.1. For the analysis of seepage using the finite element program, variables were changed for each computer run. From each run data was generated to compare the changes occurring for each variable change.

Only the two-dimensional flow condition was considered in this study. For this flow condition, the building drainage system is in one cross-section of the building where each drain collects the seepage and collector pipes or drains take the drainage by gravity to a sump or some exit drain. This is depicted by Figure 3.4.

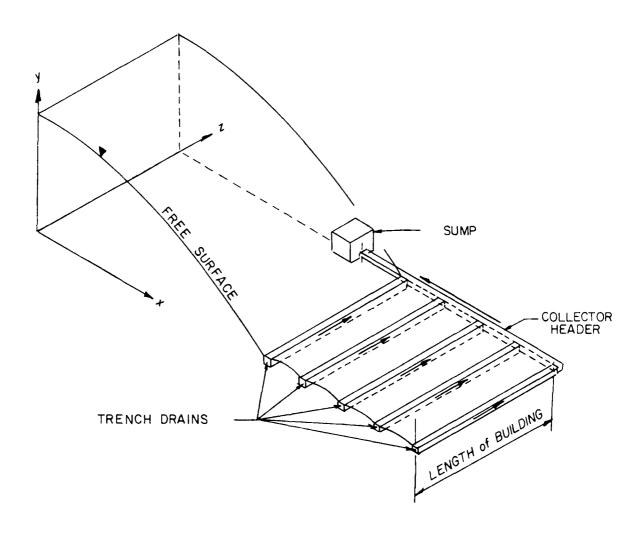


Figure 3.4 Underdrain System For Seepage Removal.

The total discharge of the system, $\mathbf{q}_{\,\mathrm{T}}$, can be express as the following function:

$$q_T = \{(Hr, h, d_w, S_p, K, S_{FS}, \theta)\}$$
 (3.18)

where q_T = total discharge of all drains, i.e. the sum of discharges through each seepage face for the model, ft 3 /day/ft

 $H_{
m T}=$ depth of saturated soll from the drain discharge elevation to the impervious boundary, ft

h = fixed head of above the drains , ft

 $d_w = drain \ width, ft$

 S_p = drain spacing, ft

K = hydraulic conductivity of the soil, ft/day

SFS = difference in elevation of the free surface to
 the water level of each drain, ft

0 = slope of the impervious boundary with horizontal, ft/ft

Dimensional analysis of equation (3.18) yields:

$$\frac{q_T}{Kh} = \left(\left(\frac{H}{h}r, \frac{d}{h}w, \frac{S}{h}p, \theta \right) \right)$$
 (3.19)

Since permeability is moved to the left side of equation (3.19) these variable is made proportional to the discharge. The elevation of the free surface, $S_{\rm FS}$, is an output variable, so

it is not given in equation (3.19. Also since the slope of the impervious boundary, θ , is already dimensionless it can be given as a single term in FT/FT.

The effects of these functional variables and other results are given in the form of dimensionless plots in Chapter 4. A discussion of the results is given in that chapter. Since considerable interest is in quantities of discharge and the location of the free surface, this analysis can be used to see trends and effects that each variable has on the seepage domain.

3.4 Program Verification

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To verify that the computer program used in this study is giving valid results, two other methods of solutions were used for a selected check case. Another micro computer finite element program, SEEP, and an appropriate analytical method based on Dupuit's assumption, was used for the simple configuration of a drainage blanket with a single pipe type drain (Duncan and Wong, 1'85). This is shown in Figure 3.5.

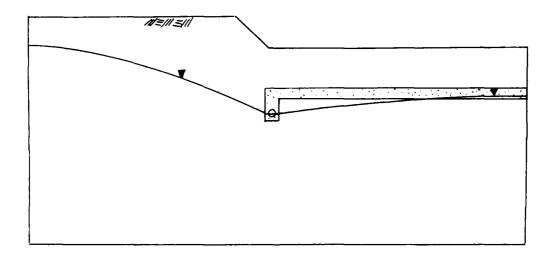


Figure 3.5 Check case example of a blanket drain with single pipe trench drain.

A grid was generated for the SEEP program to match the configuration and boundary conditions as by Figure 3.4. The total flow for this check case is calculated by the SEEP program as based on the Dupuit assumption of a fixed domain and fixed amount of head. Seep also tabulated the flow quantities for all nodal points with fixed heads. For this model, the

free surface converged on the free surface location with an error criteria of 0.16 feet.

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The location of the free surface as computed by the Georgia

Tech model converged to the free surface having an error factor

of only 0.001 feet, a much more accurate and sensitive

convergence. However, the two models compared very close as

far as the location of the free surface. Table 3.1 lists the

elevations of the free surface nodes for the two models.

TABLE 3.1 Elevations of the Free Surface Nodes

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	SEEF:VFI _Model	Ga Tech _Model
x coordinate	y coordinate	
0	78.00	78.00
40	72.55	72.73
70	67.07	67.57
80	64.27	65.17
85	62.03	6 3. 8 4
87.5	60.39	58.73
90	58.00	58.00—drain location
92	58.00	58.00
95	60.08	58.32
97.5	61.16	62.15
100	61.92	62.5 2
106	6 3.00	63 . 28
115	63.76	6 3.93
130	64.26	64.42
150	64.42	64.62

To verify that flow quantities were accurate for the Ga Tech model, results were also compared with the results obtained from a Dupuit assumption solution, developed by the Federal Highway Administration's, Highway Subdrainage Design Manual. (1980). Figure 3.6 was used to calculate the quantity of flow to the drain. The following calculations based on Figure 3.6 are presented:

$$\frac{b}{H_0} = \frac{1}{58}$$
 = 0.017 , $\frac{L_i}{H_0} = \frac{91}{58}$ = 1.57

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$$\frac{\text{K}(H - H_0)}{\text{q}_2} = \frac{0.2(78' - 58')}{\text{q}_2} = 2.17 \text{ (from Figure 3.5)}$$

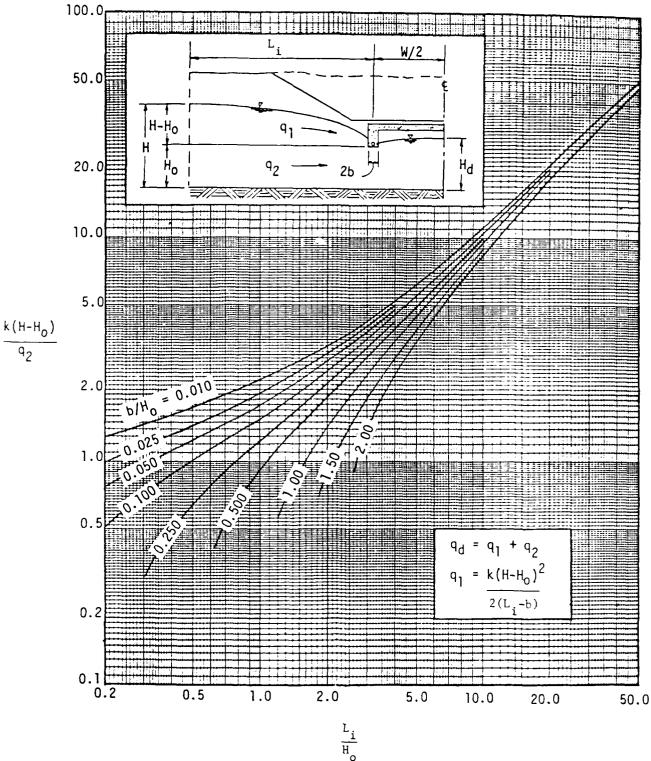
therefore
$$q_2 = \frac{0.2(20)}{2.17} = 1.84$$
 CFD

$$\frac{q}{k} = \frac{1.84}{0.2} = 9.22 , \frac{q}{k} = \frac{(H - H)^2}{2(L - b)} = \frac{(20)}{2(91 - 1)} = 2.22$$

$$\frac{q}{k} = 9.22 + 2.22 = 11.44$$

therfore
$$q_d = 0.2(11.44) = 2.29$$
 CFD

The results of this computation is compared with the results of the two finite elements in Table 3.2



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Figure 3.6 Chart for Determining Flow Rate in Symmetrical Underdrains (after FHA, 1980)

Table 3.2 Discharge to the drain check cases, CFD

	Discharge,	CFD
SEEP:VPI Model	2.15	
Ga Tech Model	2.34	
FHA Nomograph	2.2 9	

In summary, the Ga Tech model compares very well with other model and with the FHA nomograph for flow quantities. The Ga Tech model was found to more error criteria sensitive. The free surface location check also proved to compare very well with the SEEP model.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the analysis and results of the two dimensional, steady state, free surface finite element study of seepage to building underdrain systems. Details presented include model set—up such as boudary conditions, grid development and basic first assumptions. Output variables considered are total discharge and discharge at each drain, plus the free surface elevation between the drains.

In studying sensitivity of the model for the input variables, it was found that the distance from the Dirichlet boundary face, or constant head boundary, Li, to the first drain was critical. Li was found to be critical in terms of output charcteristics, i.e. discharge and location of the free surface between drains. Therfore, two sets of results are presented for two Li distances of 400 feet and 80 feet.

4.2 Model Set-up

Figure 4.1 shows the basic grid that was developed for this seepage problem. Using 150 elements and 521 nodes, the geometry of the mesh was based on a five drain system. The

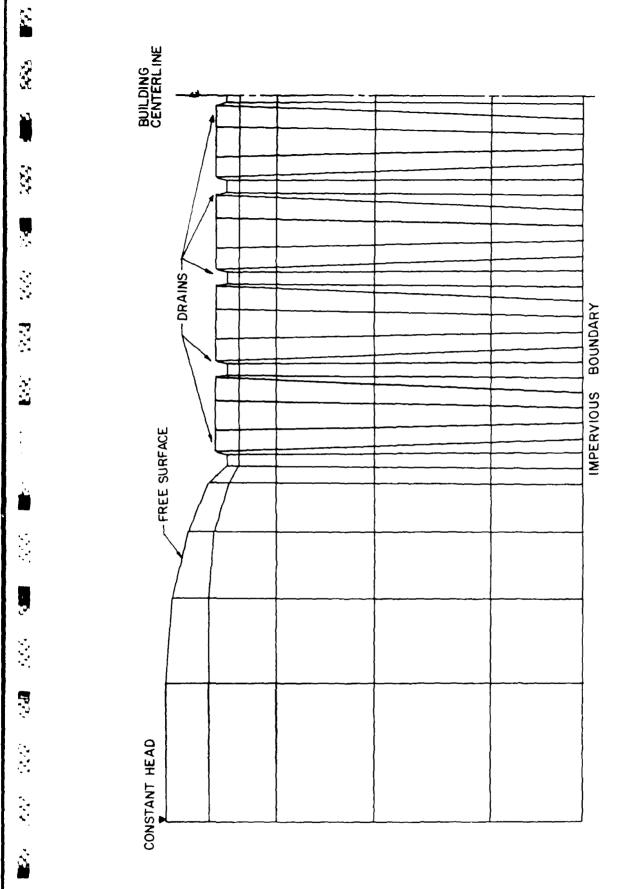


Figure 4.1 Example Mesh Used

Using the two-dimensional model, the fifth drain is considered to be at the building centerline. Assuming symmetry, only one-half of the building was analysed. The left most boundary, as shown in Figure 4.1, is a Dirichlet boundary condition which has the constant head required to allow for the seepage to enter the drains.

Listed below are some basic assumptions for the study made for this seepage problem:

- (1) Steady state flow conditions
- (2) Two-dimensional analysis where the right most boundary is the building centerline and by symmetry the flows are only one-half of the total for the total width of the building.
- (3) Free surface nodes move to the computed phreatic level, i.e. piezometric head equals atmospheric pressure at the upper most nodes
 - (4) Fartial saturated flow is not considered
 - (5) Evaporation is not considered
 - (6) Retardation is not considered
 - (7) Infiltration is not considered
- (8) The soil is homogeous being either isotropic or anisotropic.

4.3 Variables Used

For this study, key variables were used in the finite element model to look at their effects on the flow of seepage for the building underdrain system. Two major design parameters necessary to model any seepage problem is the total discharge of the drain system and the location of the free surface. For this study, the following output variables are used:

q_d = discharge or seepage quantity to each drain
 (cubic feet per day per linear foot)

 q_T = total discharge of all drains (same units)

 S_{FS} = height of free surface above drain elevation.

Discharge quantities are in units of flow quantity in time per unit length of the total flow continum. Therfore, flow for a total system should be multiplied be the length of the structure, i.e. in the third dimension.

Input variables used in this problem to study their effects on seepage are listed below:

Li = distance from the left most constant head
boundary to the first drain (feet)

K = hydraulic conductivity (feet/day)

Kv = hydraulic conductivity in the vertical

direction (feet/day)

h = hydraulic head of flow continum above the

drain elevation (feet)

Sp = spacing between drains (feet)

Dw = drain width (feet)

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 θ = slope of the impervious boundary (%)

Figure 3.1 in Chapter 3.

For this finite element problem the units of feet and days were used to give results for the output variables in cubic feet per day and feet per day for velocity.

Hydraulic conductivity or permeability values used for this study were 0.0002, 0.02, 0.2, and 4 feet per day. A soil's hydraulic conductivity having a value of 0.0002 feet per day is equivalent to a fine grained soil such as a clay. Hydraulic conductivities are tabulated in Table 4.1 to show cross reference to soil types and permeabilities in units of centimeters per second.

Table 4.1 Hydraulic Conductivity Values For Various Soil Types

Fine	grained	soil	0.0002	feet/day	7×10 ⁻⁷ cm/sec
Fine	grained	soi l	0.002	feet/day	7×10 ⁻⁷ cm/sec
silt			0.02	feet/day	7×10^{-7} cm/sec
sand,	silt		0.2	feet/day	7×10 ⁻⁷ cm/sec
clear	n sand		4	feet/day	1.4×10 ⁻⁷ cm/sec

The other input variables used were typically realistic values to meet typical field conditions. Listed below are some of this values, where for each computor run specific variables were changed and the others held constant. The intent was to see what effects that each variable change made on the model.

Li = 80', 400' and 1000'
h = 10', 20' and 40'
Hr = 20', 58' and 100'
Sp = 15', 25' and 35'
Dw = 1', 2' and 4'
θ = 0%, 5%, 10% and 20%
Kv = .0002, 0.2, 4 and 15
Kh = 0.2
K = 0.0002, 0.02, 4

4.4 Model Sensitivity

The model was developed assuming a homogeneous isotropic media, except for a few cases where anisotropic conditions were studied. The nodes of the top three rows of elements were allowed to move for iteration of the free surface. In all runs, the maximum number of iterations was six and on an average three to four were found to be adequate. The model was made to iterate to an accuracy of 0.001 feet during the free surface moves.

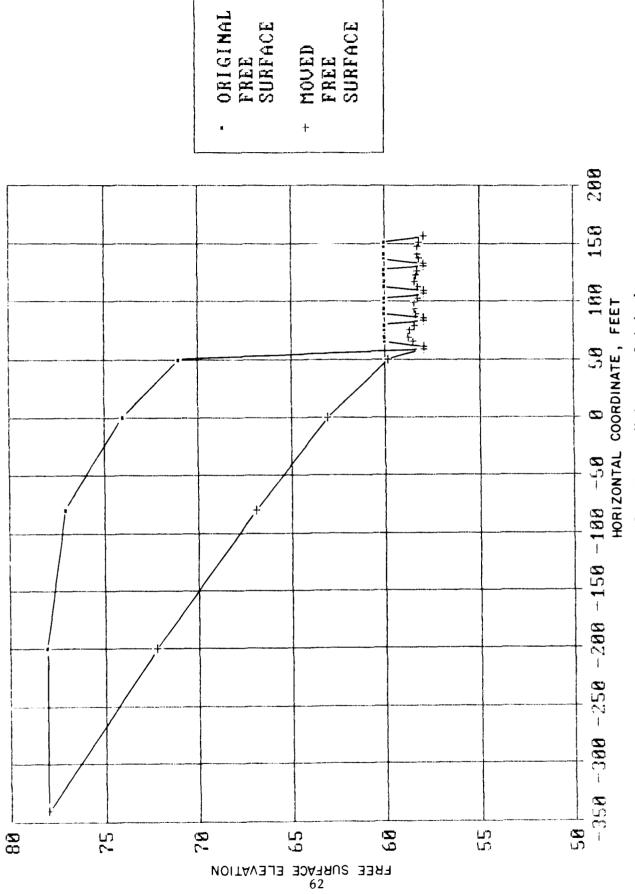
In calibration of free surface models careful attention must be made to the moving nodes. Problems exist when the elements become less than zero in area or when the elements actual may become so distorted that they may become inverted. This was not the case for the mesh used in this study.

In studying the flow quantities and velocities for the basic geometries and variable changes, all results seemed reasonable and observed trends appeared physically possible. However large variation of output was noticed by the change in distance from the constant head boundary to the first drain, Li. The first set of results is presented based on the influence length, Li, being 10 times the maximum head difference, i.e. $10 \times 40^\circ = 400^\circ$. Depth of aquifer for this case was held constant at 100 feet. Use of 10 times the head differential is based on Bear's (1979) recommendation.

Figure 4.2 depicts the moved free surface corner nodes for an influence length of 400 feet. For comparison, Figure 4.3 shows the moved free surface corner nodes for Li equal to 80 feet and a thickness of aquifer, Hr, equal to 58 feet.

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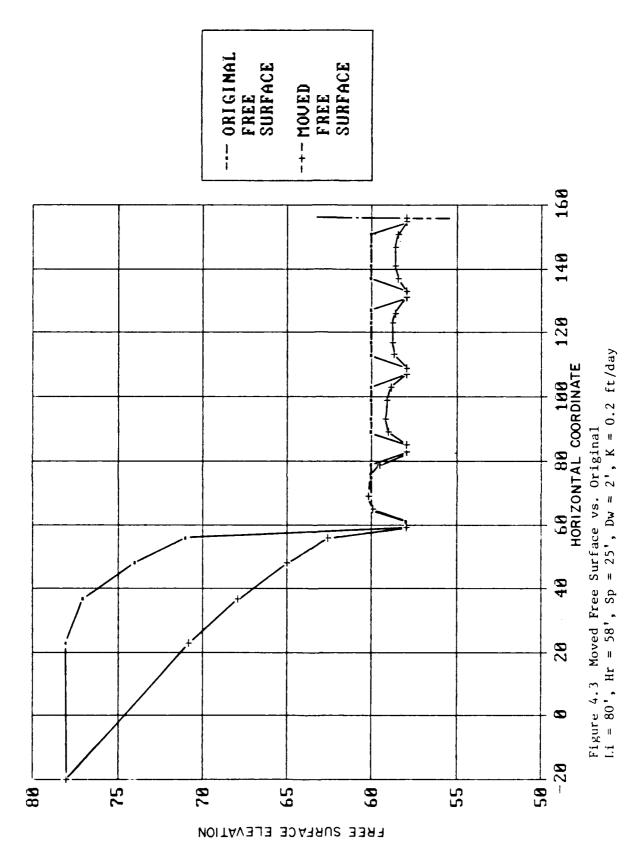
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Figure 4.2 Moved Free Surface Corner Nodes vs. Original Li = 400', Hr = 100', Sp = 25', Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day

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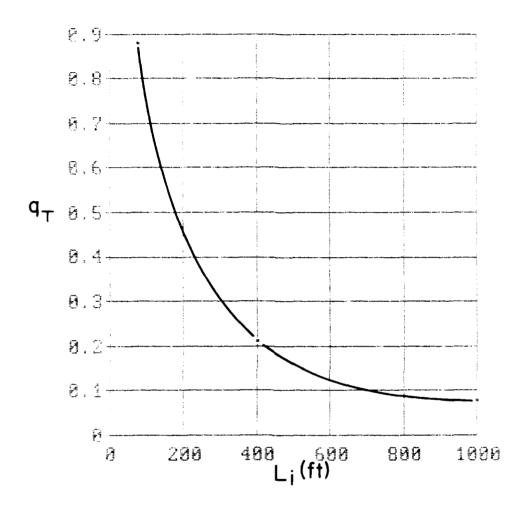
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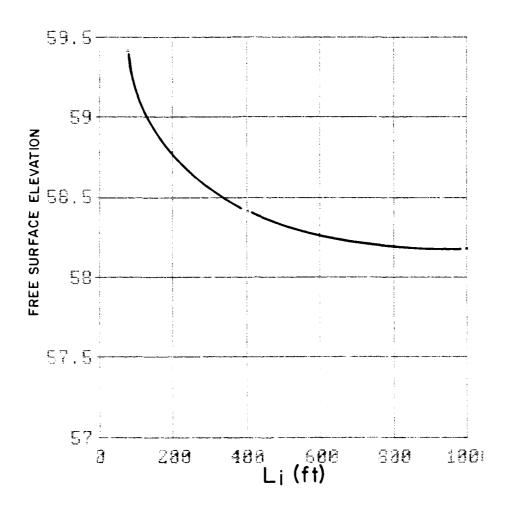
Figure 4.4 and 4.5 are presented to show the dramatic influence that the distance from the constant head boundary from the first drain, Li, has on total discharge and the maximum free surface elevation, respectively. For further reference, the total discharge, q, is the sum of the drain discharges and the maximum free surface is the highest elevation of water above the drain elevation. Lengths between 300' and 400' appear to result in less change in flow quantity and free surface changes. This equates to the distance where the constant head boundary away from the drains begins to cause the least effect on discharge and free surface changes is approximately 15 to 20 times the head differential. This perhaps is good evidence that the actual field conditions for each particular application of groundwater movement should carefully be looked at in terms of this distance.



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Figure 4.4 Distance from the constant head boundary to the first drain vs. total discharge of drains. $h=20^\circ$, $Sp=15^\circ$, K=0.2 ft/day



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Figure 4.5 Distance from the constant head boundary to the first drain vs. maximum free surface elevation. $h=20^\circ$, Sp = 15°, K=0.2 ft/day

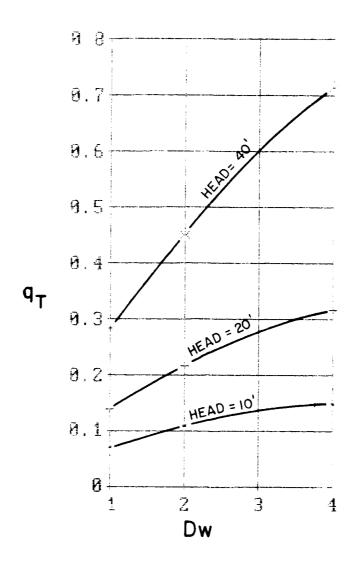
4.5 Results

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This section will present the computer results in the form of dimensionless plots and other nomographs to show the effects that each variable change has on the seepage problem. Two sets of plots are given where the first set is for the constant head boundary distance, Li, equals 400 feet and the depth of rock, Hr, equals 100 feet. The second set of plots are essentially the same as the first except Li equals 80 feet and the Hr equals 58 feet. For variable notation refer to Figure 3.1.

Drain Discharge (Li = 400' and Hr = 100')

Figure 4.6 shows the influence of drain width, Dw, for head differentials, h, of 10, 20 and 40 feet on total discharge of the drains. This shows that drain width is not particularly critical for low head differences. It is reasonable to assume that total discharge could approach a constant for drain widths greater that four feet and head less than 20 feet. Although total discharge increases with drain width, this plot does not show what drain width is the most effective or most efficient. However, the influence of head can be easily observed



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Figure 4.6 Total drain discharge vs. drain width with head differentials. Li = 400° , Hr = 100° , Sp = 25° , K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.7 depicts the results of varying anisotropic soils with varying heads. In this analysis, vertical hydraulic conductivity varies while horizontal conductivity was held constant. Figure 4.7 shows that with increase in vertical hydraulic conductivity discharge increases. This appears to satisfy theory, that with less resistance——flow increases.

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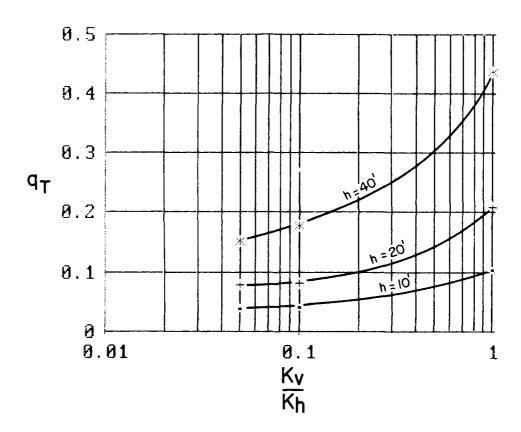
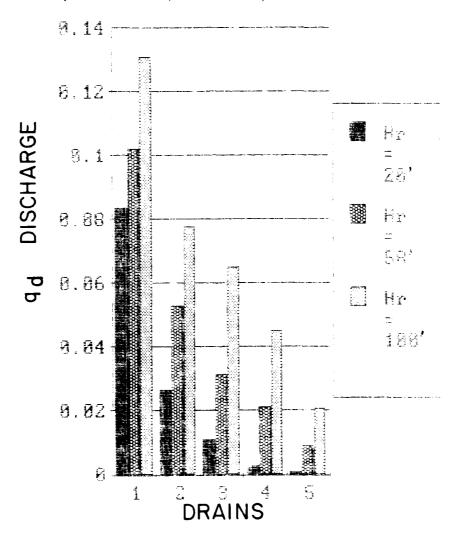


Figure 4.7 Total drain discharge vs. anisotropy with varying head differential. Li = 400° , Hr = 100° , Sp = 15° , Dw = 2° , Kh = 0.2 ft/day

Figures 4.8 through 4.12 are graphs which show the discharge quantities for each of the five drains. Figure 4.8 depicts the effects of depth of impervious layer, Hr, on the drain discharge for each of the drains. This data shows that with increased depth discharge increases. It is interesting to note that practically no flow is recorded for drain 5 when a shallow depth of impervious layer exists, i.e. Hr = 20 feet.

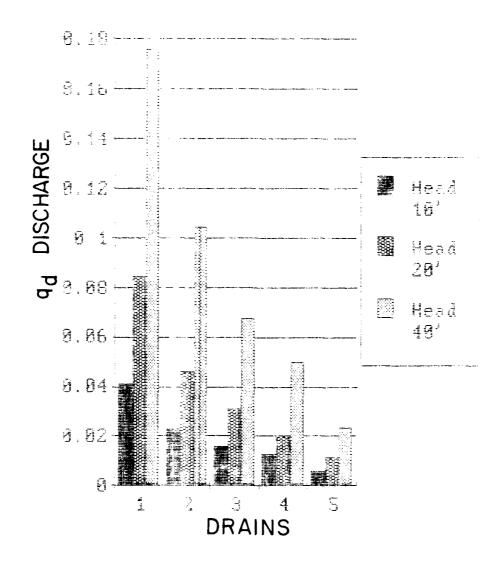


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Figure 4.8 Drain discharge vs. thickness of aquifer. Li = 400° , h = 20° , Sp = 25° , Dw = 2° , K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.9 shows the effects of head differential on the discharge of each of the drains. It is interesting to see that though the first drain is the most critical drain, i. e. a large amount of the total flow is collected in this drain, the remaining drains collect discharge decreasing linearly from the left. This is possiblly due to the influence of the constant head boundary distance, Li, being 400 feet away. This shows that for the drains, flow quantity increases linearly with increase in head.



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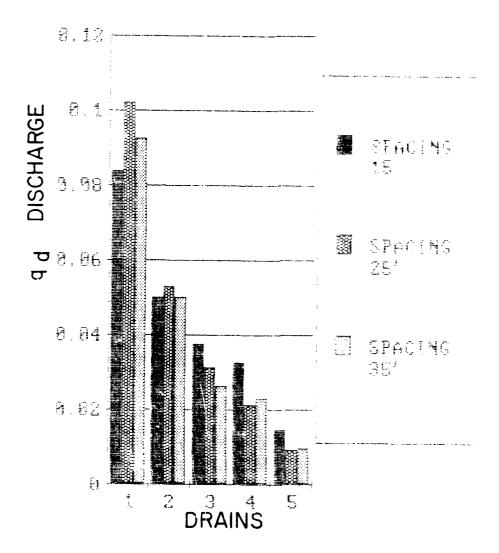
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Figure 4.9 Drain discharge vs. head differential. Li = 400', Hr = 100', Sp = 25', Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.10 depicts the results of comparing the drain discharge versus the spacing between drains. It is of interest to see that drain number one for spacing equal to 25 feet, collects more seepage than the other discharges for the other spacings. However, at drains 3 through 5 this changes and the discharge for 15 feet spacing is greatest. This will be analyzed later in the dimensional analysis.



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Figure 4.10 Drain discharge vs. drain spacing. Li = 400° , Hr = 100° , h = 20° , Dw = 2° , K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.11 shows the effects of anisotropy of the soil matrix on drain discharge. It is of interest to see that the discharge for KV/Kh equal one is much greater than the other drain discharges for KV/Kh less than one.

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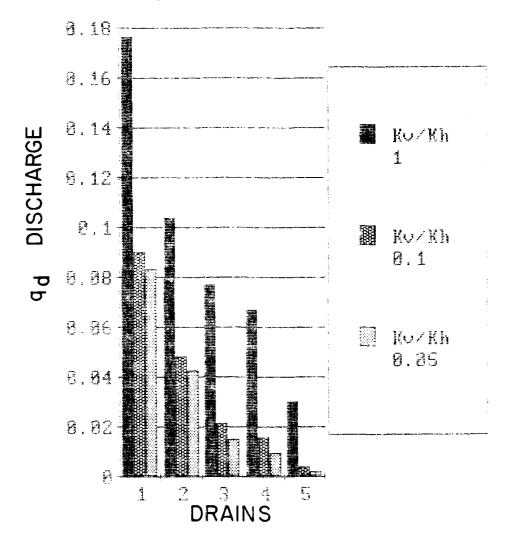
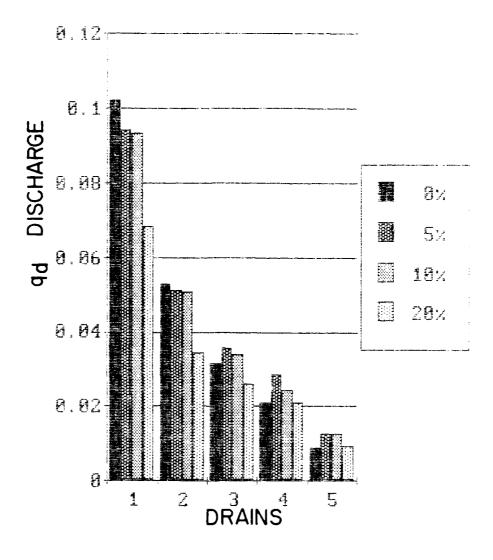


Figure 4.11 Drain discharge vs. anisotropy. $Li = 400^\circ$, $Hr = 100^\circ$, $Sp = 15^\circ$, Dw = 2, $h = 20^\circ$

Figure 4.12 depicts data generated for the condition of a sloping impervious layer. The slope of the boundary is given as a percentage of $\Delta \times /\Delta y$. The depth of the layer is held constant at drain one and the layer slopes clockwise from the positive \times horizontal axis.

Though actual quantities of discharge are only changing in very small ammounts, the trend is seen that for slopes greater than 5% the discharge increases in drains 3 through 5. However at some slope between 5% and 10% the discharge decreases. It is also seen that the discharge of drain five is the least effected by any slope change, in terms of discharge quantity.

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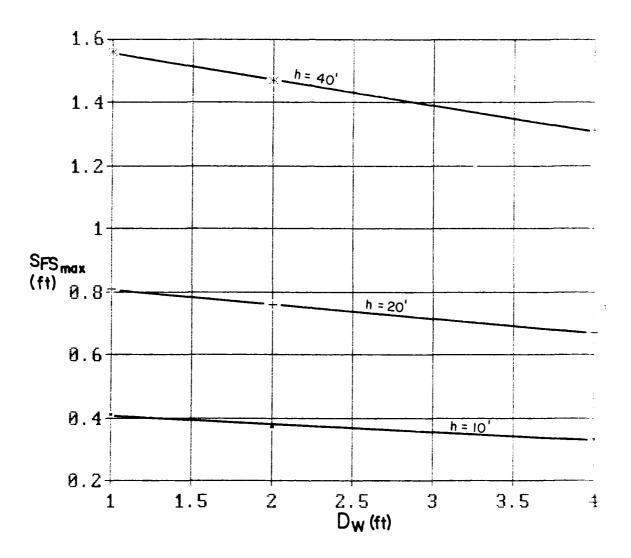
Figure 4.12 Drain discharge vs. slope of the impervious layer. Li = 400', Hr = 100'(first drain), h = 20', Sp = 25', Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day

Free Surface Location (Li = 400' and Hr = 100')

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Figure 4.13 shows the influence of the drain width on the maximum free surface height, ${\rm S}_{\rm FS_{max}}$. In all cases this occured between drains one and two. This plot shows how the relationship is linear and that the height of the free surface is not greatly affected by the drain width.



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Figure 4.13 Maximum free surface height vs. drain width with varying heads. Li = 400° , Hr = 100° , Sp = 25° , K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.14 depicts the influence of drain spacing and head on the maximum free surface height. These results show that increased drain spacing causes an increase in the free surface. Therefore one should consider the smaller spacing or possibly deeper drains.

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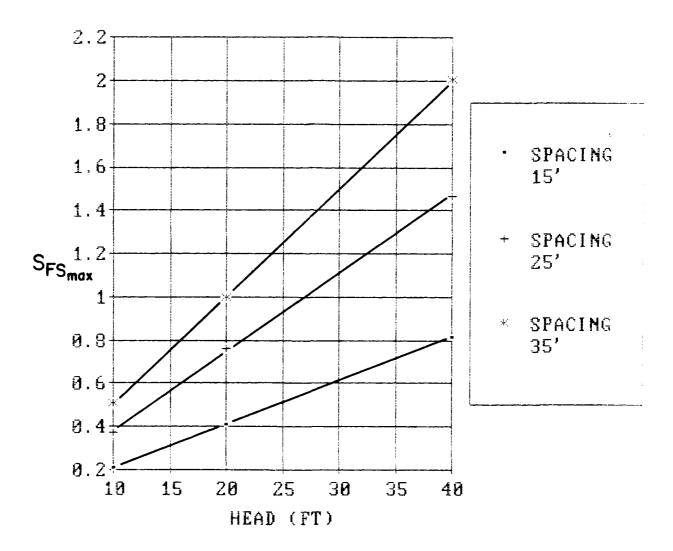


Figure 4.14 Maximum free surface height vs. spacing of drains with varying head. Li = 400° , Hr = 100° , Dw = 2° , K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.15 shows the relationship of maximum free surface height, $S_{FS_{max}}$, as a fuction of head, h, and anisotropy, Kv/Kh. The same trend is seen here as noticed with discharge for anisotropy, that with increased vertical hydraulic conductivity the height of the free surface increases.

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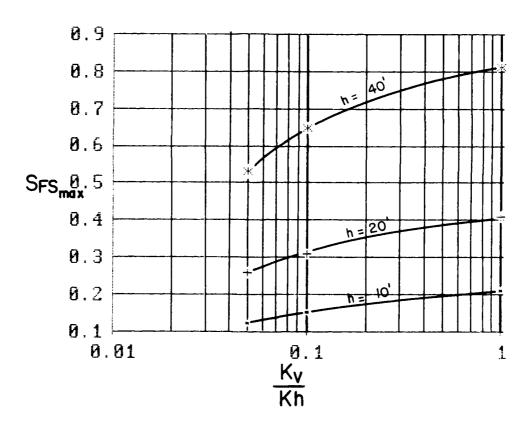


Figure 4.15 Maximum free surface height vs. anisotropy with varying head. $L_1 = 400$, $Hr = 100^\circ$, $Sp = 25^\circ$, $Dw = 2^\circ$

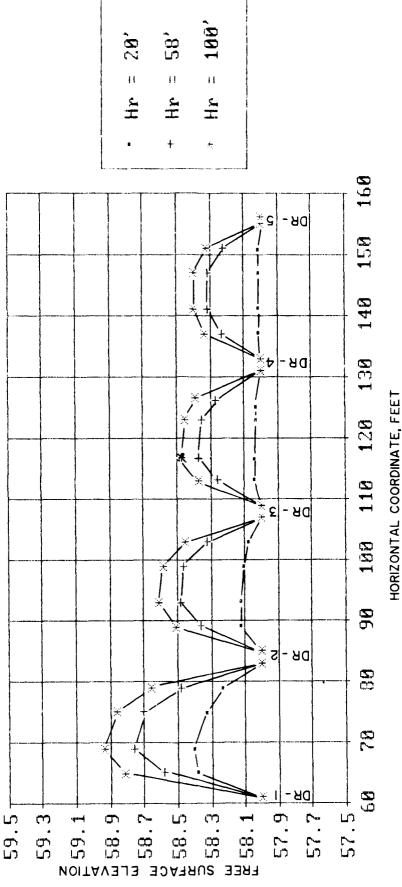
In Figures 4.16 through 4.20, the free surface corner nodes are plotted for the different cases of analysis. To see the effects of the free surface changes versus the variable changes only nodes between the drains are plotted. In the sence of design, the maximum height of the free surface would be of the most concern, which is in between the first two drains. However, it is of interest to see the total free surface from a standpoint of total cross section of the building.

In Figure 4.16 the effect of thickness of aquifer on location of the free surface is shown. It is of interest to see, as in the case for discharge shown by Figure 4.8, that for shallow depths of impervious layer, $Hr = 20^{\circ}$, that very little rise in the free surface occurs in between drains four and five.

Figure 4.17 shows the effects of head differential on the location of the free surface nodes. It is of interest to see for cases of head equal to 20 and 10 feet the free surface nodes are approaching gentle mounds of water in between drains. However for the head equal to 40 feet the free surface peaks rather abruptly between the first two drains but resumes the gentle fall in free surface between the other drains.

Figure 4.18 shows the effects of drain spacing on the location of the free surface nodes. This shows as spacing is increased the free surface increases.

For Figure 4.19, the effects of the sloping aquifer on location of the free surface nodes is shown. The same trend is seen here as in discharge, shown by Figure 4.12, that for slopes greater than 10% the free surface location drops. The change in free surface nodes is very small for the cases of slope equal to 5% and 10%.



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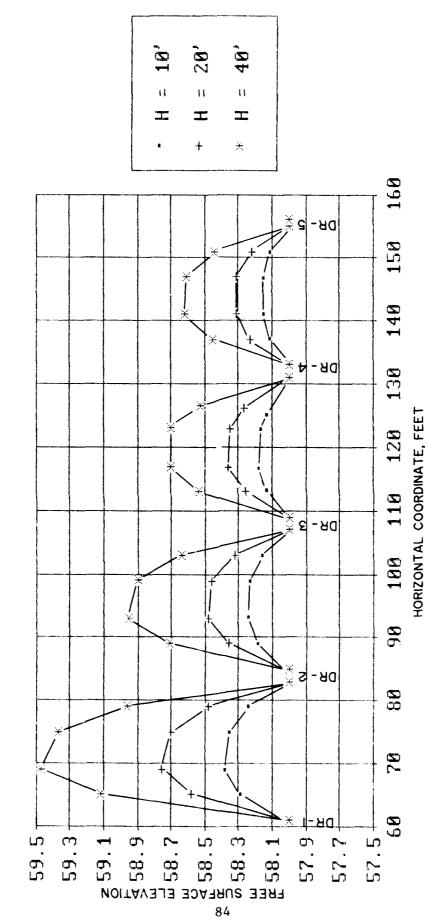
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Figure 4.16 Free Surface corner nodes at drains with effects impervious boundary layer. Li = 400', h = 20', Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day

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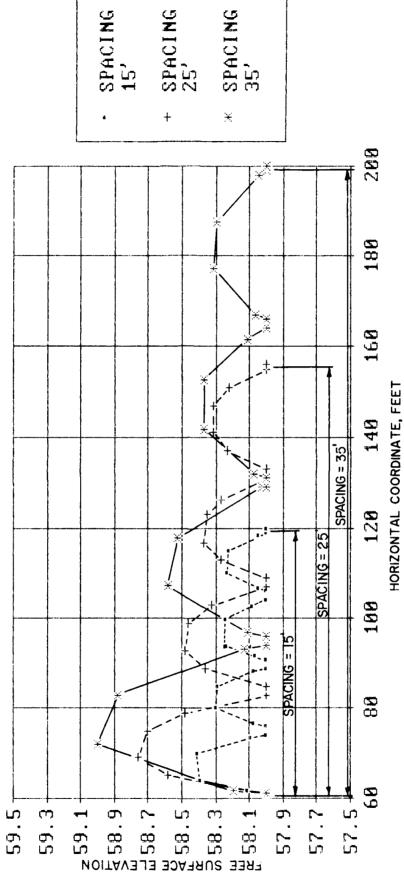
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Li = 400', Hr = 100', Sp = 25', Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day Free Surface corner nodes with drains with effects of head differential. Figure 4.17



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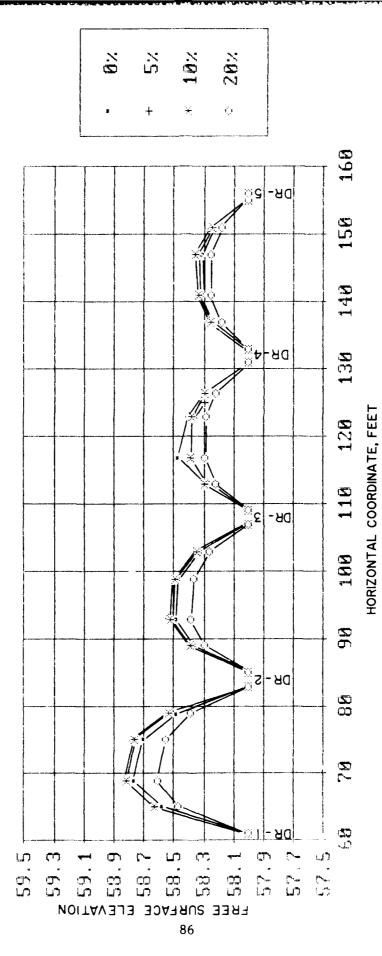
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Figure 4.18 Free Surface corner nodes with drains with effects of drain spacing. $Li = 400', \ Hr = 100', \ h = 20', \ Dw = 2', \ K = 0.2 \ ft/day$



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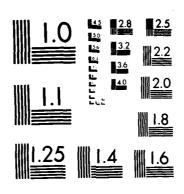
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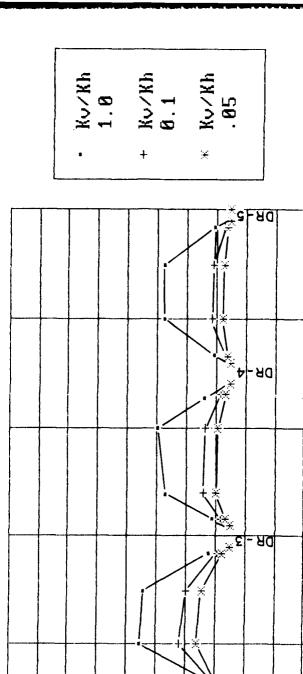
Free Surface corner nodes with drains with effects of slope of impervious boundary. Figure 4.19

Li = 400', Hr = 100'(first drain), Sp = 25', h = 20', K = 0.2 ft/day

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Figure 4.20 Free Surface corner nodes with effects of anisotropy.

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Li = 400', Hr = 100', Sp = 25', h = 20', Dw = 2'

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Dimensionsal Analysis (Li = 400° and Hr = 100°)

Figures 4.21 through 4.24 are plots of the data generated by a dimensional analysis as discussed in Chapter 3. The discharge values given are unit discharge quantities and each case is for the particular variables noted in each figure. Unit discharge is defined as the sum of the total drain discharges for each of the drains per unit width in the z axis or the third dimension.

In Figure 4.21 the effect of drain width is analyzed. plot shows that with increased drain width discharge increases, but with increased head the discharge may increase at a much faster rate. From this analysis it would appear that the greatest increases of flow rate would be for the drain widths between one and two feet wide. The following analysis is performed:

Drain Widths

<u>head</u>	1	2	3	4
10	0.034	0.053	0.065	0.073
increase	- 0.0	0.0	0.0	009
20	0.035	0.055	0.070	0.086
increase	o.c	0.0	15 0.0	016
40	0.036	0.057	0.075	0.09
increase	0.0	021 0.03)15
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This analysis shows the increases of the flow function for the different head increases as shown. The maximum increase is seen for the values between drain widths of one and two. Therfore the most effective increase in flow occurs for drain widths between 1 and 2 feet. Another relationship could be stated, that for Dw/h ratios less than 0.2 the flow quantity increases at a rapid rate.

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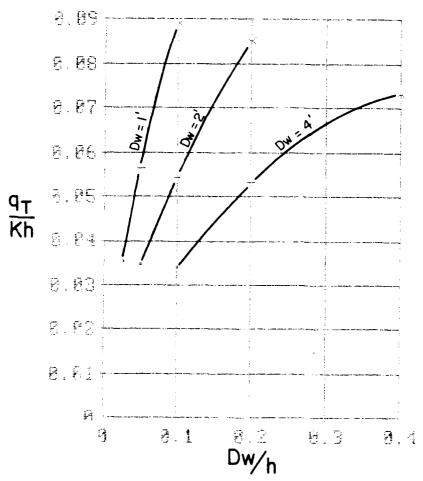


Figure 4.21 Dimensional analysis, Drain width. Li = 400° , Hr = 100° , Sp = 25° , K = 0.2 ft/day

In Figure 4.22 the effects of thickness of aquifer is shown for the dimensional analysis. This plot concludes that for Hr/h ratios greater than 2 or 3 the net increase in flow is approaching a linear relationship. This states that with increasing thickness of the aquifer the dicharge is expected to increase very near a linear increase and for very shallow thicknesses the flow becomes very small.

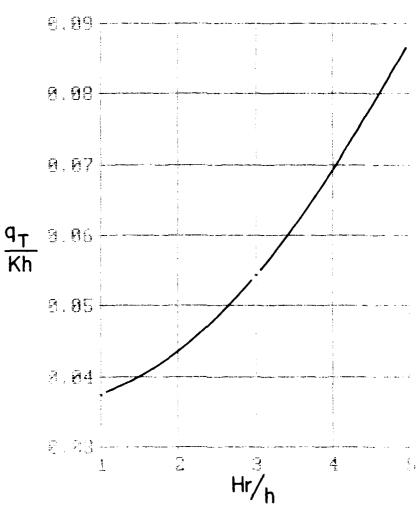
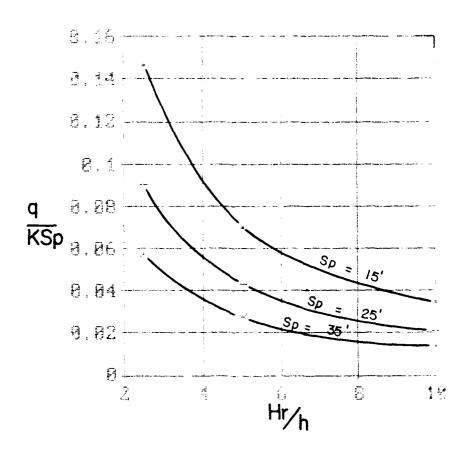


Figure 4.22 Dimensional Analysis, Depths of impervious layer. Li = 400° , Sp = 25° , Dw = 2° , K = 0.2 ft/day

The effects of drain spacing is presented in Figure 4.23. The flow function for this analysis is treated differently for the spacing changes. As the spacing was increased for each of the computer runs the flow domain increased accordingly to accommodate the five drains at the appropriate spacing. Therfore to gain understanding of the effects of flow relationships with respect to drain spacing, each term was normalized by the corresponding spacing between the drains for each head increase. This analysis shows for decreased spacing discharge increases and as head increases so the discharge.



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Figure 4.23 Dimensional Analysis, Drain spacing. Li = 400, Hr = 100', Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.24 shows the dimensional analysis for effects of the sloping aquifer. For this particular flow matrix as modeled, a definate break in flow increase is noticed. The peak discharge function is at slope, θ equal 0.05.

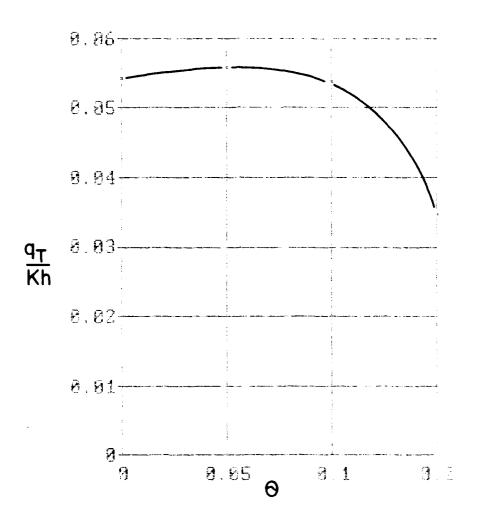


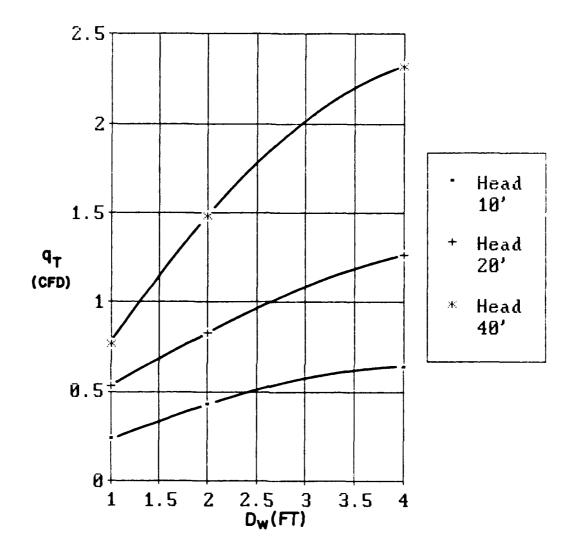
Figure 4.24 Dimensional Analysis, Slope of aquifer. Li = 400', Hr = 100'(first drain), Sp = 25', Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day

Results For Li = 80' and Hr = 58'

The following plots and nomographs are the results for the computor runs where distance from the constant head boundary to the first drain, Li, equals 80 feet and the thickness of the aquifer equals 58 feet. The plots are essentially the same as for the previous case except these variables are held constant.

Drain Discharge (Li = 80° and Hr = 58°)

Figure 4.25 shows the effects of drain width on total drain discharge. The results are generally the same as shown in Figure 4.6 except discharge quantities range from 3 to 4 times greater.



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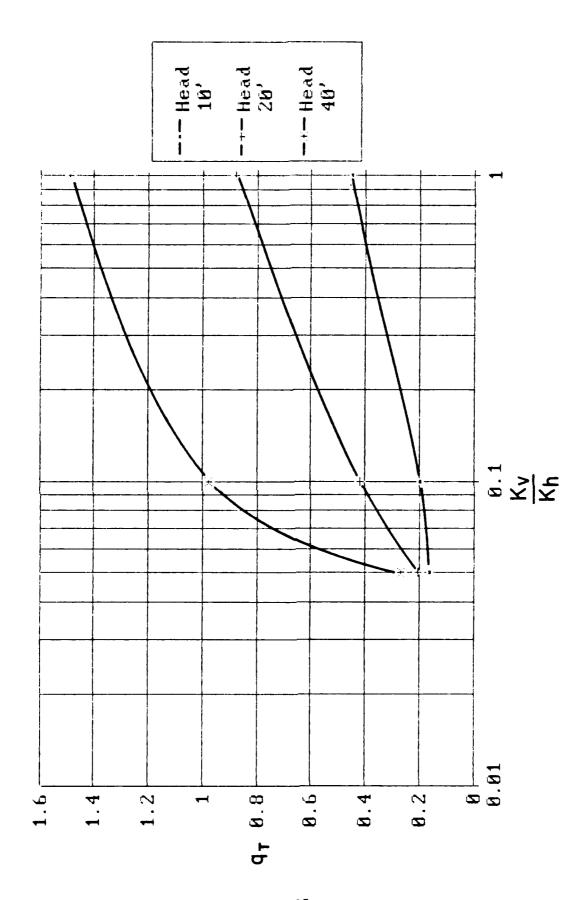
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Figure 4.25 Total drain discharge vs. drain width with varying head. Li = 80', Hr = 58', Sp = 25', K = 0.2 ft/day

The results of anisotropy of the soil continum is shown by Figure 4.26 for the short Li distance of 80 feet. The trend is slightly different than for the case for Li equal 400 feet as shown by Figure 4.7. For the largest head value of 40 feet the discharge decreases just slightly with decrease in vertical hydraulic conductivity, but for a Kv/Kh ratio less than 0.1 the discharge decrease is very dramatic. However for the low head value of 10 feet the general decreasing trend is prevelant as the case for Figure 4.7.

For this case the flow quantities have increased approximately 4 to 5 times. This shows the large effects that the distance of the constant head boundary has on the seepage quantities.



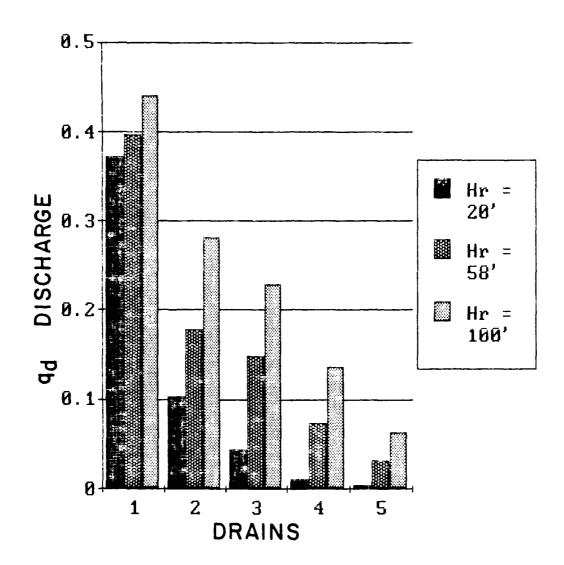
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Total Drain Discharge vs. Anisotropy with varying heads Li = 80', Hr = 58', Sp = 15', Dw = 2', Kh = 0.2 ft/day Figure 4.26

Figures 4.27 and 4.28 depict the same general trend of maximum flow at drain one and a general decrease in flow for each consectutive drain is noticed for effects of thickness of aquifier and head respectively. Flow quantities are again 3 to 4 times greater for this case than for the earlier case as shown by Figures 4.8 and 4.9. For this case of shorter distance to the constant head boundary equal 80 feet, the mid-peak discharges at the third drain is not noticed as in Figure 4.9. In Figure 4.28 it is of interest to see that the largest head value equal 40 feet has such a large effect on the first drain collecting a large portion of the total discharge of the system.



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Figure 4.27 Drain discharge vs. depth of aquifer. Li = 80', h = 20', Sp = 25', K = 0.2 ft/day, Dw = 2'

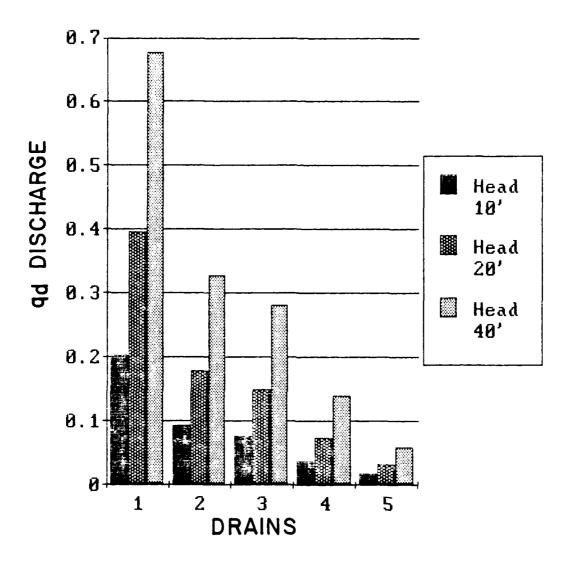


Figure 4.28 Drain discharge vs. head differential. Li = 80° , Hr = 58° , Sp = 25° , Dw = 2° , K = 0.2 ft/day

The effects of drain spacing for distance of the constant head boundary to the first drain, Li, equal 80 feet, is shown by Figure 4.29. The same trends are seen for this case as that shown by Figure 4.10. Flow increase is somewhat less in this case compared to the earlier case of Li equal 400 feet. Flow quantities appear to range from 2 to 3 times as great.

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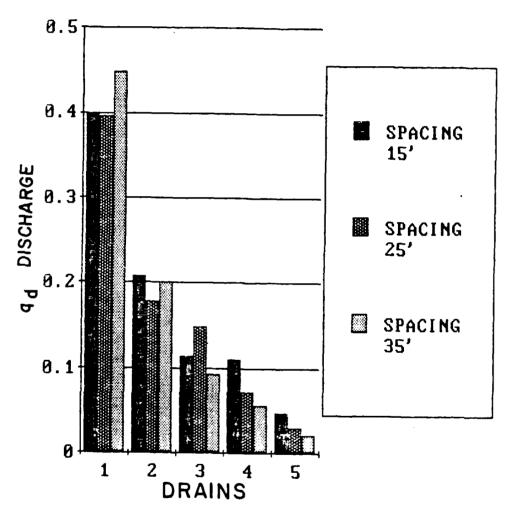
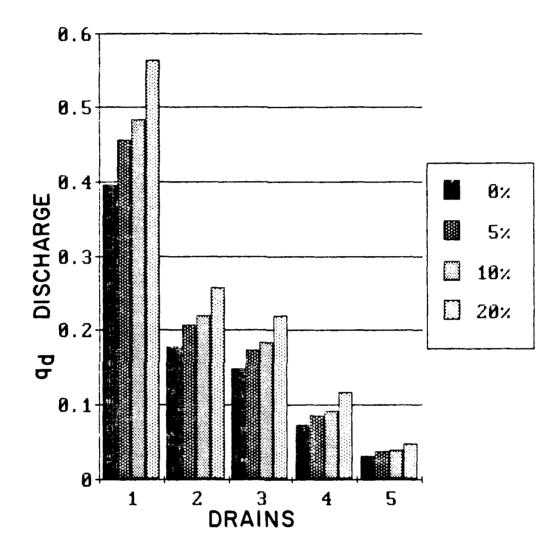


Figure 4.29 Drain discharge vs. drain spacing. Li = 80° , Hr = 58° , h = 20° , Dw = 2° , K = 0.2 ft/day

In Figure 4.30 the effects of slope of the impervious boundary, θ , is shown for drain discharge. A significant change is noticed for this plot when compared to the earlier plot in Figure 4.12 for sloping aquifer. For Li equal to 400 feet, the peak discharge occured for a slope between 5 and 10 percent. In this case, where Li equals 80 feet, the peak flow is for the case of the steepest slope equal to 20 percent. For drain one, the flow is 8 times greater than the flow for drain one as shown by Figure 4.12, Li = 400 feet. The flow is 5 times greater in drain five in this case than the flow in drain five for the case of Li = 400 feet.



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Figure 4.30 Drain discharge vs. slope of the impervious boundary. Li = 80', Hr = 58'(first drain), h = 20', Sp = 25'. Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day

Free Surface Location (Li = 80° and Hr = 58°)

Figures 4.31 through 4.36 show the results of the free surface location plots for the case of Li equal 80 feet and Hr equal 58 feet. The same general trends are shown for this plots as shown by the earlier case of Li equal 400 feet and Hr equal 100 feet. In general, the free surface has moved up approximately three times in height. An exception to the earlier case of is shown in Figure 4.36. This figure shows the location of the free surface nodes with the effects of slope of the impervious boundary. It is somewhat different in this case than in the earlier case as shown in Figure 4.19 for Li equal 400 feet. In this case the free surface continues to increase in height as the slope of the impervious boundary increases.

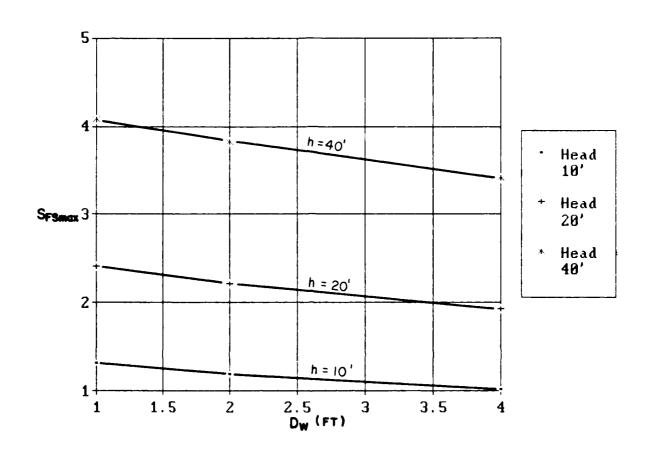
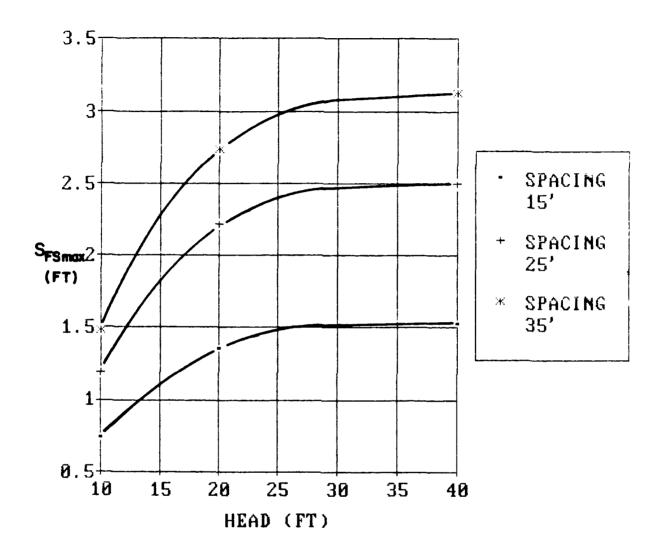


Figure 4.31 Maximum free surface height vs. drain width. Li = 80', Hr = 58', Sp = 25', K = 0.2 ft/day



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Figure 4.32 Maximum free surface height vs. frain spacing with head varying. Li = 80° , Hr = 58° , Dw = 2° , K = 0.2 ft/day

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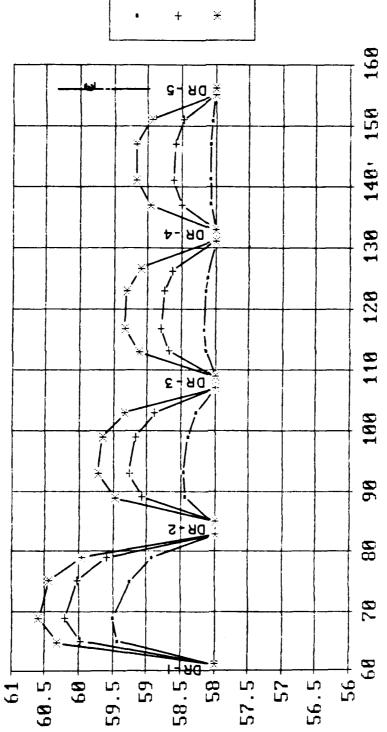
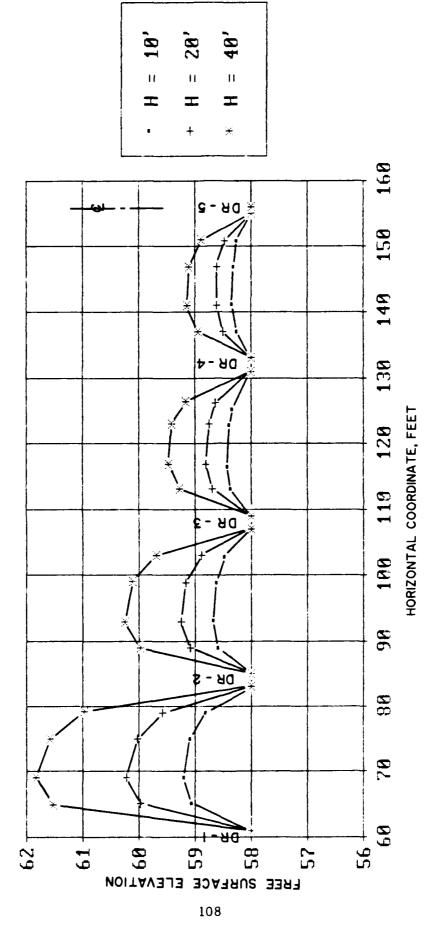


Figure 4.33 Free surface corner nodes with effects of Depth of impervious boundary.

Li = 80', h = 20', Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day

HORIZONTAL COORDINATE, FEET

FREE SURFACE ELEVATION



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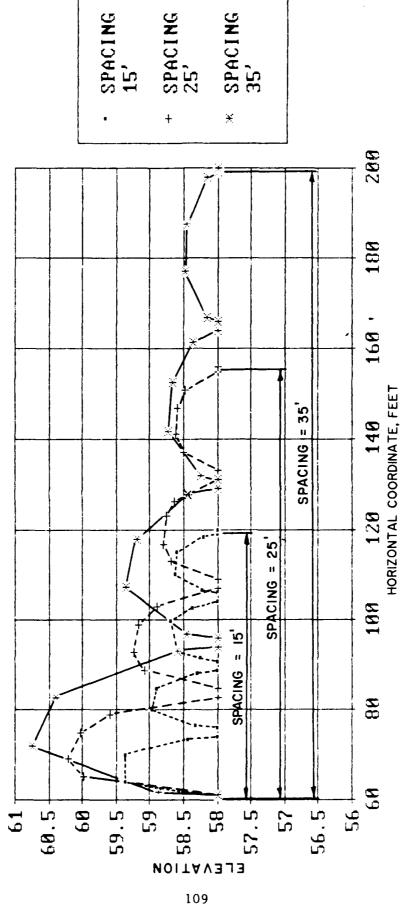
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Figure 4.34 Free surface corner nodes with effects of head differential. Li = 80', Hr = 58', Sp = 25', K = 0.2 ft/day



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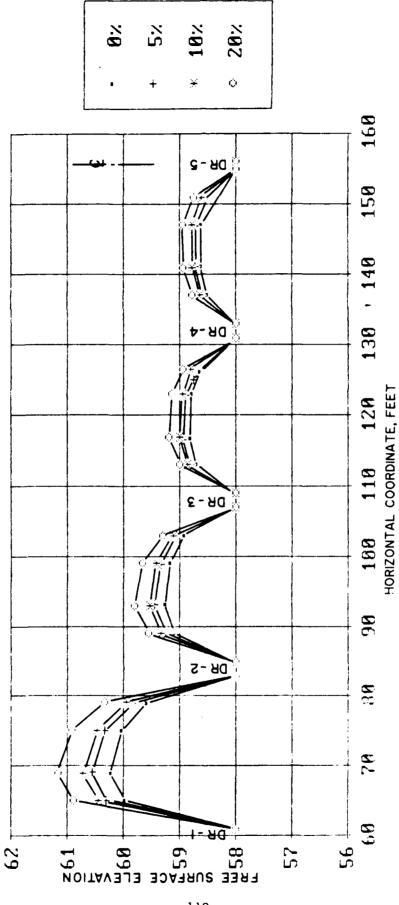
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Drain spacing Li = 80', Hr = 58', h = 20, Dw = 2', K = 0.2 ft/day Free surface corner nodes with effects of Figure 4.35



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slope of impervious boundary. Li = 80', Hr =58'(first drain), Dw = 2', h = 20', K = 0.2 ft/day Free surface corner nodes with effects of Figure 4.36

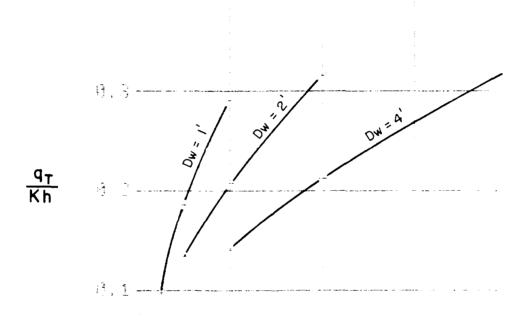
Dimensional Analysis (Li = 80' and Hr = 58')

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The effects of drain width as shown by the dimensional analysis is shown by Figure 4.37. The general trend of the discharge increasing with drain width is seen in the data. When compared to the earlier case for Li equal to 400 feet, it is seen that total discharge is greatly effected, by a factor of three times.

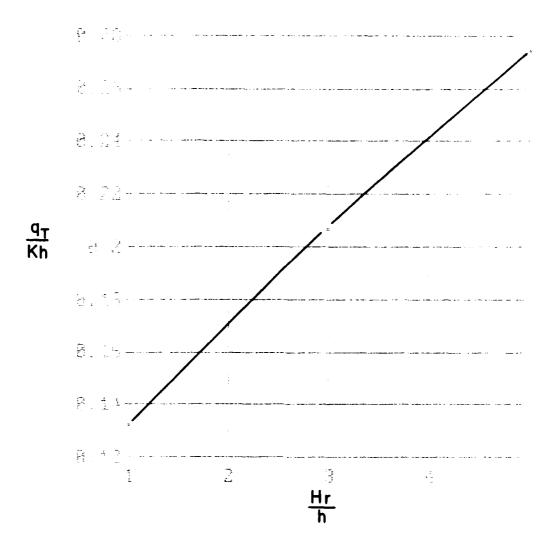




Dw/h

Figure 4.37 Dimensional Analysis, drain width. Li = 80', Hr = 58', Sp = 25', K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.38 shows the dimensional analysis results for thichness of the aquifer. In this case, Li equal 80 feet, the relationship is more linear than in the case of Li equal 400 feet as shown in Figure 4.22. This results in the conclusion that the effects of Hr has a pronounce influence on the flow quantities when coupled with the distance Li. For a shorter distance of Li, the effects of depths of Hr is more crictical and more of a linear relationship. However when the distance from the constant head boundary is larger, as in the earlier case, the effects of Hr are not as effective when Hr is very small.



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Figure 4.38 Dimensional Analysis, depth of aquifer. Li = 80° , Sp = 25° , Dw = 2° , K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.39 shows the results of the dimensional analysis for drain spacing. Again the ordinate is normalized with respect to the area subtended by each flow continum for each case of spacing. Flow quantity would equate to an increase of approximately 5 to 6 times from this case of Li equal 80 feet versus Li equal 400 as shown in Figure 4.23.

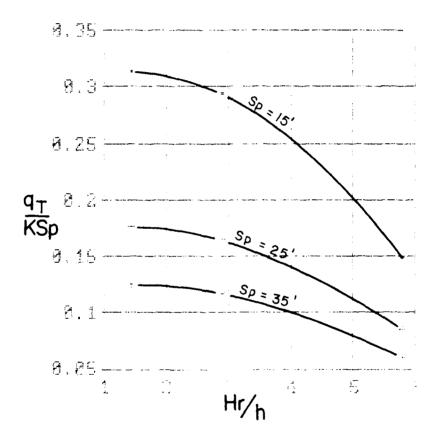


Figure 4.39 Dimensional Analysis, drain spacing. Li = 80° , Hr = 58° , Dw = 2° , K = 0.2 ft/day

Figure 4.40 shows the dimensional analysis results for the sloping impervious boundary. For this case, Li equal 80 feet, as depicted in the earlier plots for sloping aquifer for drain dischrage and free surface location, the trend is seen that for and increase in slope the discharge increases.



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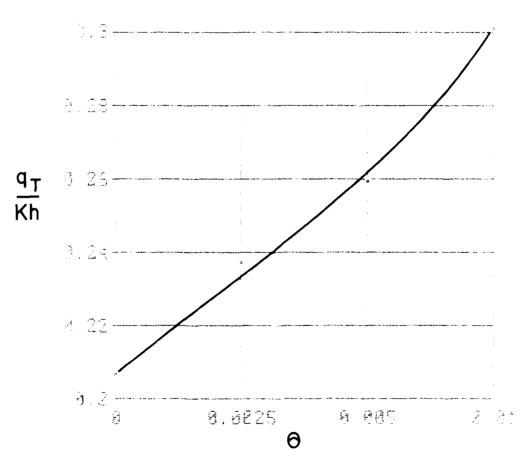


Figure 4.40 Dimesional Analysis, sloping impervious boundary. Li = 80', Hr = 58', Sp = 25', Dw = 2, K = 0.2 ft/day

4.6 Summary

This chapter has included the results of many computer runs for the analysis of a building underdrain system. The importance of model sensitivity must be stressed, in that key variables may effect the results very significantly. In this model, it was found that the most crictical variables affecting the total discharges of the drains and location of the free surface was the distance from the constant head boundary to the drain system, Li, and thickness of the aquifer, Hr.

The results obtained appear to be reasonable and within limits of possible field occurances. However, using these results for quantifying flows and the free surface locations requires a very careful study and background investigation of all geometric configurations and soil conditions. It is intended that this study has presented the results in a manner that one can observe the effects of the variables studied on such a underdrain system.

In summary, the following observations are discussed for the variables used in this analysis.

Constant Head Boundary Distance, Li

As distance from the constant head boundary to the system $116\,$

increases the flow quantities increase for the drain system. In terms of a correlation with hydraulic head differential above the drain, as used by other authors, this model study shows that for a distance of approximately 15 times the head, discharge appears to decrease. In terms of gradient, this equates to a 1 over 15 ratio or 0.067 gradient. A slightly higher distance was observed in the analysis of this influence to location of the free surface.

Depth of Aquifer, Hr

The results show that with increased aquifer thickness the drain discharge increases, increasing very near to a linear relationship. It was also observed that for the very shallow thicknesses, the last drains collected very little flow. The height of the free surface is affected in the same fashion. With increased thickness of aquifer the height of the free surface increases between drains.

Drain Spacing, Sp

Drain spacing effects on discharge was greatly affected by the distance of the system from the constant head boundary. A substantial increase of 5 to 6 times the discharge was observed for the two distances used in the results presented. It was observed that as head increases, discharge increases for all drain spacings; and as drain spacing increases, discharge

decreases. It was also observed that from the dimensional analysis, the most efficient drain spacing is for a spacing over head ratio of less than 2. The location of the free surface was observed to increase between drains as drain spacing is increased.

Drain Width, Dw

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With increased drain width the discharge increases for all other variables constant. However, there must be a trade off for efficiency of the complete system. It appears that a drain width between 1 to 2 feet is the most effective width. This is also a plus from a standpoint that lateral seepage can be easily drained into thinner trenches or deeper constructed drains.

Slope of Impervious Boundary, O

For the distance of the constant head boundary to the drain system equal to 80 feet, the drain discharge was observed to increase with increased slope. However, for the distance, Li equal to 400 feet, the maximum discharge occurs at a slope between 5 to 10 percent. This occurance is not fully understood and perhaps should be further studied to develope some reasoning. This requires that careful consideration of specific boundary geometries be used in model studies for seepage analysis.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSSION

In this day and age, more and more sites are chosen for buildings and engineered structures that are less desirable to work with from a standpoint of site conditions, poor soils and water problems. A less desirable site may easily be where the groundwater table is very near to the surface. Therfore the building's design must incorporate some thought into how the groundwater will be handled and what effects it may have on the structure.

Engineers faced with the analysis of seepage for buildings to be built below the groundwater table must consider such conditions of uplift pressures, critical velocities, seepage control of the water itself or particle migration. Hopefully the design will enhance stability of the structure and prolong the usefulness and life of the structure.

In performing the literature review on this topic, it was found that many authors and researchers are more and more relying on and developing computor models to perform the analysis of complex seepage problems. With the use of general seepage theory and mathematical representation of the seepage theories.

the computer programs can quickly and efficiently aid the endgineer in studying the flow conditions. As in this study, the analysis of one particular seepage problem using a finite element program made it possible to study many key variables and develope many relationships.

For this study, underdrain systems for buildings built below the groundwater table were researched. By using a finite element program, and by developing a mesh for this particular flow matrix, many variables of the analysis were studied. It was found that the model could easily be used to ettiliently and accurately study these variables. It makes one et it dicharge of the system and location of the free extremes the studied in detail versus the variables.

This research has attempted to a common and useful criteria be essentially seepage problem. It is a common techniques, i.e. to the essential assumptions of the common somewhat situation to the common techniques of the com

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AFFENDIX A-1

USER'S MANUAL FOR ARAL SEEPAGE PROGRAM

I. INTRODUCTION:

This seepage program is a finite element model for solving unconfined or confined two dimensional or axisymetric seepage problems. For unconfined flow analysis the model iterates by moving the free surface nodes to the phreatic level.

In general, the program allows for the porous soil mass to be divided into discrete elements and nodes using either a vertical plane model(two-dimensional,x-y) or axisymmetric grid structure. Then applying known boundary conditions, the program simultaneously solves for each element, the continuity equation which satisfies Darcy's Law.

Figure 1 shows a very simple case of a two dimensional unconfined steady state condition which can serve as an example. In this example the free surface location is unknown and the user must begin the process by initiallizing the input by approximating the location. Then the program will iterate to the free surface level until the free surface converges to satisfy the equations of flow.

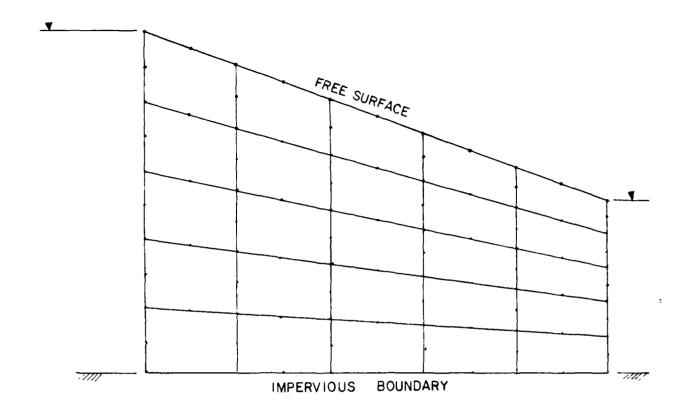


Figure 1 Example Grid for Unconfined Flow Continum.

II. FROGRAM EXECUTION AND ANALYSIS:

The user has the option of performing a two dimensional problem or an axisymmetric problem. The two dimensional case simply show by figure 1 will serve as an example to explain the parameters. An axisymetric application might be a well source problem looking at stratified soils having varying permeabilities at different elevations through the porous media.

III. BOUNDARY CONDITIONS OF FLOW:

The potential, ϕ , of flow must be defined as some directional function

$$\phi = \int (x,y,z,t)$$

A Dirichlet boundary condition is where the piezometric head, h is constant, or

$$h = \int (x, y, z, t)$$

is solved for at a particular point. This boundary condition occurs whenever the flow domain is adjacent to an open body of fluid. Since the piezometric head is constant at the open body of water, the piezometric head of the porous media at the interface

will be constant. This boundary condition denotes a non-zero flux or flow is to be considered possible.

Another boundary condition for flow potential is the Neuman boundaries. This is the case where flow cannot move through the porous media at a specific point defined, i.e. an impervious layer of stratum.

IV. FINITE ELEMENT GRID NOTATION:

The porous soil mass to be analysed must be divided into a grid of elements and nodes. The program uses any shape second—order isoparametric element, shown by figure 2 as a quadralateral element containing four corner nodes and four midpoint nodes.

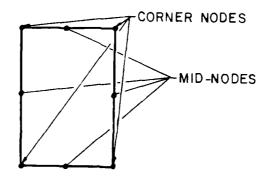


Figure 2 Element and Node Notation.

The nodes must be numbered from some beginning corner, preferably the number one node should be at the bottom left corner of the mesh. Then node numbering increases to the end of each column, beginning at the bottom of each column throughout the mesh. One can see the numbering scheme by the examples presented. Elements are numbered the same as the nodes.

The program automatically generates nodes at equal spacing between corner nodes which are defined by the user. This feature requires that careful attention be made to the node numbering scheme once corner nodes have been established. This feature is good for creating finer mesh grids in particular areas of interest.

Base elements are used to create stationary reference elements typically at the bottom of the mesh or away from the free surface elements. These elements are also used to define changes in hydraulic conductivity in the \times and y directions(X and Y).

The free surface or phreatic surface of a media is defined by the user as a first approximation of it's actual location. In the case of a cutoff wall, shown in Figure 3, there is no free surface and the seepage model solves for the flow characteristics of each element and node. However, in the case of a dam as shown in Figure 3, the free surface is unknown and the program will solve for the phreatic surface where the fluid pressure is at

atmospheric pressure. In confined aquifers the water pressures would possible be higher than atmospheric pressure.

Seepage faces are defined by the user to denote a boundary or where seepage is to be allowed. Here flow is quiatified and the model solves for the velocity and discharge at this face.

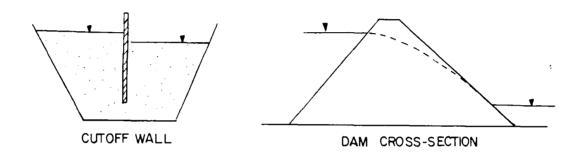


Figure 3 Example of confined flow and unconfined flow.

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Permeability of the porous media often depends on the direction of flow. For the condition of soil matrix being anisotropic the velocities and gradients are generally not parallel. For this condition the velocities can be written in the Darcy Law form:

$$Vx = -Kxx \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$$

$$Vy = -Kyy \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$$

$$Vz = -Kzz \frac{\partial h}{\partial z}$$

Normally the hydraulic conductivity of teh media is similar in the y direction. Therfore treatment of this normal condition requires use of only two direcetions. For this simplification, the program uses the notation of the two dimensional case. Figure 4 shows the notation that should be used for describing the hydraulic conductivity conditions.

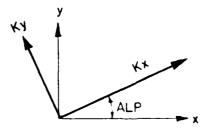


Figure 4 Hydraulic Conductivity Notation. A-8

V. INPUT VARIABLES AND DATA INPUT

Input can be given in unformated notation where each data input is seperated by a comma or space. Careful attention, however, must be made to use the appropriate number input data per line as described by this guide.

Title and Type Problem Card.

TITLE The title can be up to 72 characters.

DIMEN Flow problem e problem is a two dimensional analysis input 2 and for an axisymetric problem input 1.

Flane Flow Froblem 2

Axisymetric Problem 1

FERR Having performed a sensitivity of the model or decided on an error critiria, input the error required.

Control cards

NNPC Total number of corner nodal points.

These nodes are used to define corners of elements which are defined by input coordinates. Nodes that are not listed will be generated between two corner nodes for each vertical column or row deliniation.

NELEMC Total number of base elements.

Base elements are typically at the bottom of a series of elements that change the hydraulic conductivity of the elements above these base elements. These elements are established as reference elements for the program to describe permeability of each element.

NPBOC Total number of Neuman Boundary Faces.
A Neuman face is defined as a line of nodes that may create a barrior or impervious wall for the flow. If two corner nodes define a line of several nodes that makes an impervious barrier, this is one Neuman Boundary face.

NPFS Total number of corner nodes on the free surface.

The user must specify particular corner nodes which reflect the first approximation of the unknown free surface. The program uses these nodes and the midpoint nodes to converge to the free surface.

- ITGIV Number of iterations desired.

 This is a safety feature for possible imputerries a discomputor time limitation.
- NPBDC Total number of Dirichlet Boundary faces.

 Flow is allowed at these faces. Do not count the mid point nodes as part of the face.
- NSPFAC Total number of seepage faces with Dirichlet boundaries. For each face defined by two corner nodes for the NPBDC input variable a NSPFAC value should be given. As in

NPBDC = 2 NSPFAC = 1

NPBDC = 3 NSPFAC = 2

ITIME Time variable. Input 0 = time independent.
This is used for transient computation and is not used in steady state computations.

Corner Node Location Cards

Corner node number (n)

 $x(n) \times coordinate of node(n)$

y(n) y coordinate of node(n)

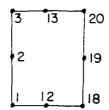
Note: There should be NNPC number of these cards. Use appropriate dimensions, i.e. feet, meters which will be carried throughout the remaining input variables.

NPMIS Enter a "1" or "0" where

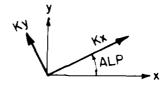
- 1 additional nodes are to be generated after this node.
- 0 no nodes will be generated after this node.

Base Reference Elements Identification Cards

NOD For each base element(N), give a counter-clockwise numbering for each node in the element.



- NMIS Total number of elements above the base element before the next base element.
- XK(N) Hydraulic conductivity of the elements defined by the base element in the x direction.
- YK(N) Hydraulic conductivity in the y direction.
- ALP(N) Angle of possible stratification or plane of soil matrix with the horizontal.



Note: There should be NELEMC number of these cards provided.

Neuman Boundary Condition Cards

- NSTART The beginning or lowest corner node number of each Neuman Boundary defined.
- BVAL The Neuman Boundary value that defines the known potential height or water level measured from the datum reference line of the coordinate system.
- NBSAME Total number of boundary faces having same Neuman boundary condition. Each face is a line made by two corner nodes of the same Neuman boundary.

NINC The number of nodal number increases or numerical difference to the next corner node from node NSTART. Do not count mid-nodes only corner nodes.

Note: There should be NPBOC cards provided for this set.

Dirichlet Boundary Condition Cards

NSTAR The beginning or lowest corner node number which defines each Dirichlet boundary.

DBVAL The Dirichlet boundary value that defines the potential or water level height measured from the data reference elevation of the coordinate system.

NDSAME Total number of boundary faces of this Dirichlet boundary condition. Each face is counted between corner nodes defining the boundary or number of elements.

NDINC The number of nodal number increases or numerical difference to the next corner node from node NSTAR.

NMID The number of nodal number increases from the NSTAR to the next mid-node.

Note: There should be NPBDC cards provided for this set.

Free Surface Nodal Cards (Maximum 16 pairs per card)

NPFSA Free surface corner node number.

NPBOT Node number of the bottom of the movable section of the grid that defines the limits of moving nodes for NPFSA.

Note: There should be NFFS pairs of node numbers given for a maximum of 16 pairs per card. Use as many cards as required. The bottom node (NFBOT) defines the bottom of a seepage face corresponding to the grid geometry and corner node defining the free surface. The program uses this band of nodes and elements to converge on the free surface.

Mid-point Free Surface Nodal Cards.

NPFSM The mid-point nodal numbers between corner nodes defining the free surface (NPFS - 1).

Seepage Face Cards

NSFC Beginning node number of the defined seepage face.

NSSAME Number of seepage faces defined by elements for this seepage face NSPC.

NSINC Node numbering increase between nodes defined by NSSAME.

Note: There should be NSPFAC cards provided for this set.

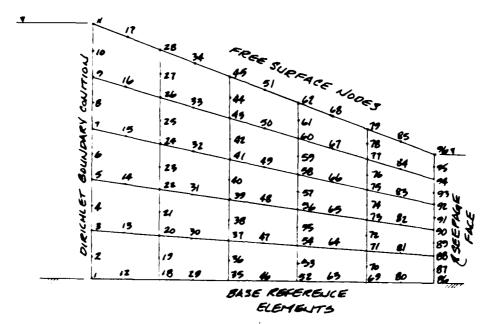
Statement and End Card

End of Froblem Statement should be less than 72 characters and end with a period.

NDIMEN Input a "3" to end the problem.

ERR Specify any error as for FERR.

UNCONFINED FLOW EXAMPLE PROBLEM



Title and Type Problem Card

TITLE - SILTY SAND DAM

DIMEN - 2 (two dimensional)

FERR - 0.01 (error criterion is 0.01)

Control Cards

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<u>}</u>

NMFC - 12 (corner nodes are 18, 52 35, 45, 52, 62, 69, 79, 86 and 96)

NELEMC- 5 (five base elements - shaded)

NPBOC - 0 (no Neuman Boundaries)

NPFS - 6 (6 nodal points on the free surface - 11, 28, 45, 62, 79 and 96)

ITGIV - 50 (maximum number of iterations)

NPBDC - 2 (There are two faces with Dirichlet boundary conditions, the left side and the right side of the mesh which forms the dam)

NSPFAC- 1 (There is one seepage face - on the right side where flow is to be considered.)

ITIME - 0 (Time independent for steady state conditions)

Corner Node Location Cards

1,0,0,1

Where, the first node is number 1 having an \times coordinate of 0 and a y coordinate of 0. Generation of additional nodes will follow.

11,0,110,0

Where, node 11 is at the end of the first column at coordinates 0 and 110 and no generation is required for other nodes in this column.

18,200,0,1 28,200,99,0 35,400,0,1 45,400,88,0 52,600,0,1 62,600,77,0 69,800,0,1 79,800,66,0 86,1000,0,1 96,1000,55,0

Base Reference Elements Identification Cards

1,12,18,19,20,13,3,2,4,0.002,0.002,0

Counter clockwise numbering of nodes for each element and the permeability, $0.002~{\rm ft/day}$ for this base element and 4 elements above the base element.

18, 29, 35, 36, 37, 30, 20, 19, 4, 0.002, 0.002, 0 35, 46, 52, 53, 54, 47, 37, 36, 4, 0.002, 0.002, 0 52, 63, 69, 70, 71, 64, 54, 53, 4, 0.002, 0.002, 0 69, 80, 86, 87, 88, 81, 71, 70, 4, 0.002, 0.002, 0

Neuman Boundary Condition Cards

None specified, so no cards will be provided

Dirichlet Boundary Condition Cards

1,110,5,2,1 86,55,5,2,1

The first node of the first Dirichlet Boundary is node 1 and the DBVAL value is 110 feet. There are 5 elements on this face that makes this Dirichlet boundary condition, NDSAME = 5. NDINC equals 2 for the nodal number increase for the consecutive elements, as in 3-1, 5-3, 7-5, etc. NMID equals 1 for the node numbering increase between successive nodes.

Free Surface Nodal Cards

11, 1, 28, 18, 45, 35, 62, 52, 79, 69, 96, 86

Here the total mesh is allowed to move, where the user may fix the bottom nodes at any level in the mesh.

Mid-point Free Surface Nodal Cards

17,34,51,48,85

Seepage Face Cards

86,2,2

The seepage is prescribed to start at node 86, NSFC = 86, and there are 2 elements for this seepage face. NSINC is equal to 2 as there is a two nodal increase between element corner nodes, as is 88-86 and 90-88.

Statement and End Card

END OF SILTY SAND DAM. 3,.001

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APPENDIX B-1

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SAMPLE INPUT

AND OUTPUT

SP = 25 FEET DEPTH = 20 FEET K = .2. DEPTH = 58'. RUN ADS2 2,0.0001 93,30,0,30,20,6,5,0 1,-340,0,15,-340,34,1 11,-340,78.0,0 18,-200,0,1 22,-200,34,1 28,-200,78.0,0 35,-80,0,1 39,-80,34,1 45,-80,77.0,0 52,0,0,1 56,0,34,1 62,0,74.0,0 69,50,0,1 73,50,34,1 79,50,71.0,0 86,58.75,0,1 90,58.75,34,1 96,59.0,58.0,0 103,62.0,0,1 107,62.0,34,1 113,61.0,58.0,0 120,66.0,0,1 124,66.0,34,1 130,65.0,60.0,0 137,70.0,0,1 141,70.0,34,1 147,69.0,60.0,0 154,74.0,0,1 158,74.0,34,1 164,75.0,60.0,0 171,78.0,0,1 175,78.0,34,1 181,79.0,60.0,0 188,82.0,0,1 192,82.0,34,1 198,83.0,58.0,0 205,86.0,0,1 209,86.0,34,1 215,85.0,58.0,0 222,90.0,0,1 226,90.0,34,1 232,89.0,60.0,0 239,94.0,0,1 243,94.0,34,1 249,93.0,60.0,0 256,98.0,0,1 260,98.0,34,1 266,99.0,60.0,0 273,102.0,0,1 277,102.0.34,1 283,103.0,60.0,0 290,106.0,0,1 294,106.0,34,1 300,107.0,58.0,0 307,110.0,0,1 311,110.0,34,1 317,109.0.58.0.0

324,114.0,0,1 328,114.0,34,1 334,113.0,60.0,0 341,118.0,0,1 345,118.0,34,1 351,117.0,60.0,0 358,122.0,0,1 362,122.0,34,1 368,123.0,60.0,0 375,126.0,0,1 379,126.0,34,1 385,127.0,60.0,0 392,130.0,0,1 396,130.0,34,1 402.131.0.58.0.0 409,134.0,0,1 413,134.0,34,1 419,133.0,58.0,0 426, 138.0, 0, 1 430,138.0,34,1 436,137.0,60.0,0 443,142.0,0,1 447,142.0,34,1 453,141.0,60.0,0 460,146.0,0,1 464,146.0,34,1 470,147.0,60.0,0 477,150.0,0,1 481,150.0,34,1 487,151.0,60.0,0 494,154.0,0,1 498,154.0,34,1 504, 155.0, 58.0, 0 511,156.0,0,1 515, 156.0, 34, 1 521,156.0,58.0,0 1,12,18,19,20,13,3,2,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 18,29,35,36,37,30,20,19,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 35,46,52,53,54,47,37,36,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 52,63,69,70,71,64,54,53,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 69,80,86,87,88,81,71,70,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 86,97,103,104,105,98,88,87,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 103, 114, 120, 121, 122, 115, 105, 104, 4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0 120, 131, 137, 138, 139, 132, 122, 121, 4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0 137, 148, 154, 155, 156, 149, 139, 138, 4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0 154, 165, 171, 172, 173, 166, 156, 155, 4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0 171, 182, 188, 189, 190, 183, 173, 172, 4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0 188, 199, 205, 206, 207, 200, 190, 189, 4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0 205,216,222,223,224,217,207,206,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 222, 233, 239, 240, 241, 234, 224, 223, 4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0 239, 250, 256, 257, 258, 251, 241, 240, 4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0 256, 267, 273, 274, 275, 268, 258, 257, 4, 0, 2, 0, 2, 0, 0 273, 284, 290, 291, 292, 285, 275, 274, 4, 0, 2, 0, 2, 0, 0 290,301,307,308,309,302,292,291,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 307,318,324,325,326,319,309,308,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 324,335,341,342,343,336,326,325,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 341,352,358,359,360,353,343,342,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 358, 369, 375, 376, 377, 370, 360, 359, 4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0 375,386,392,393,394,387,377,376,4,0.2,0.2,0.0 392,403,409,410,411,404,394,393,4,0.2,0.2,0.0

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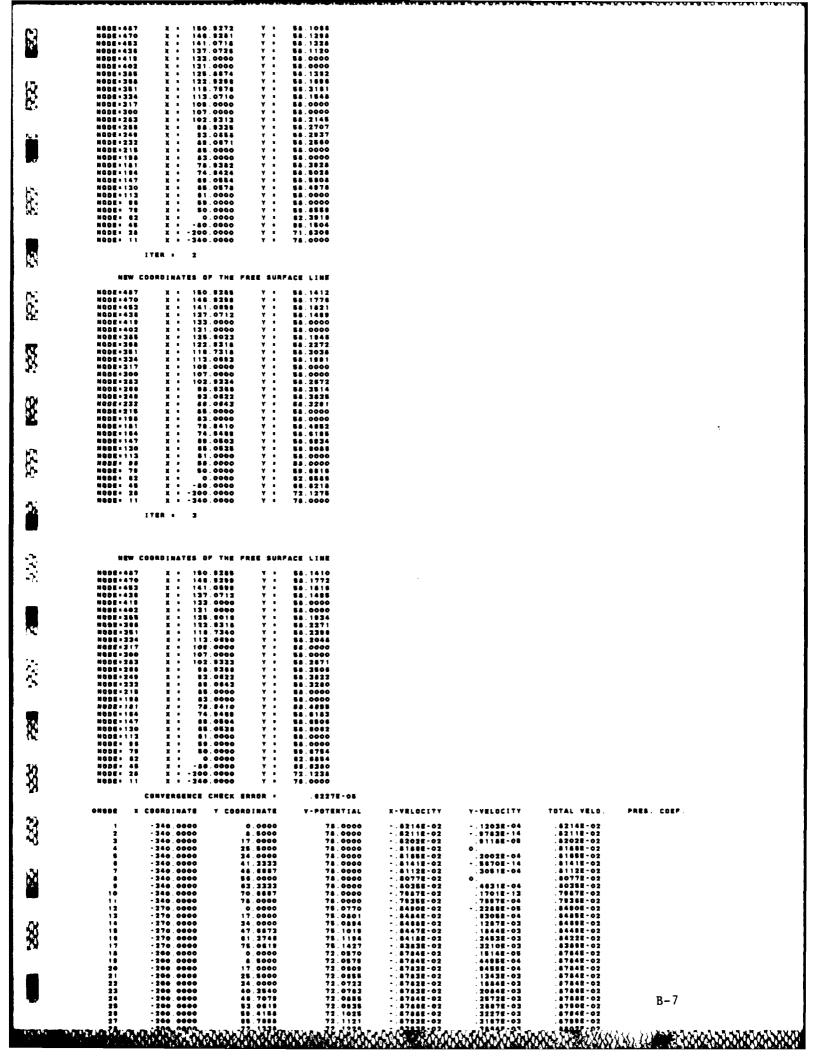
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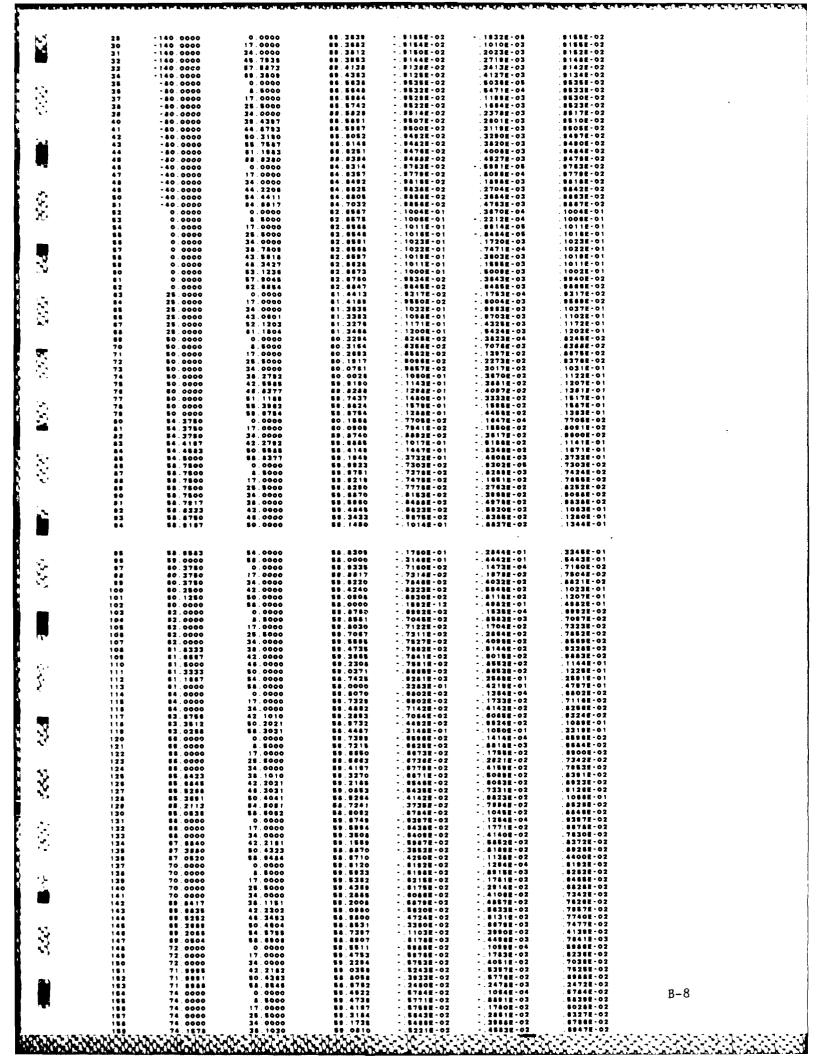
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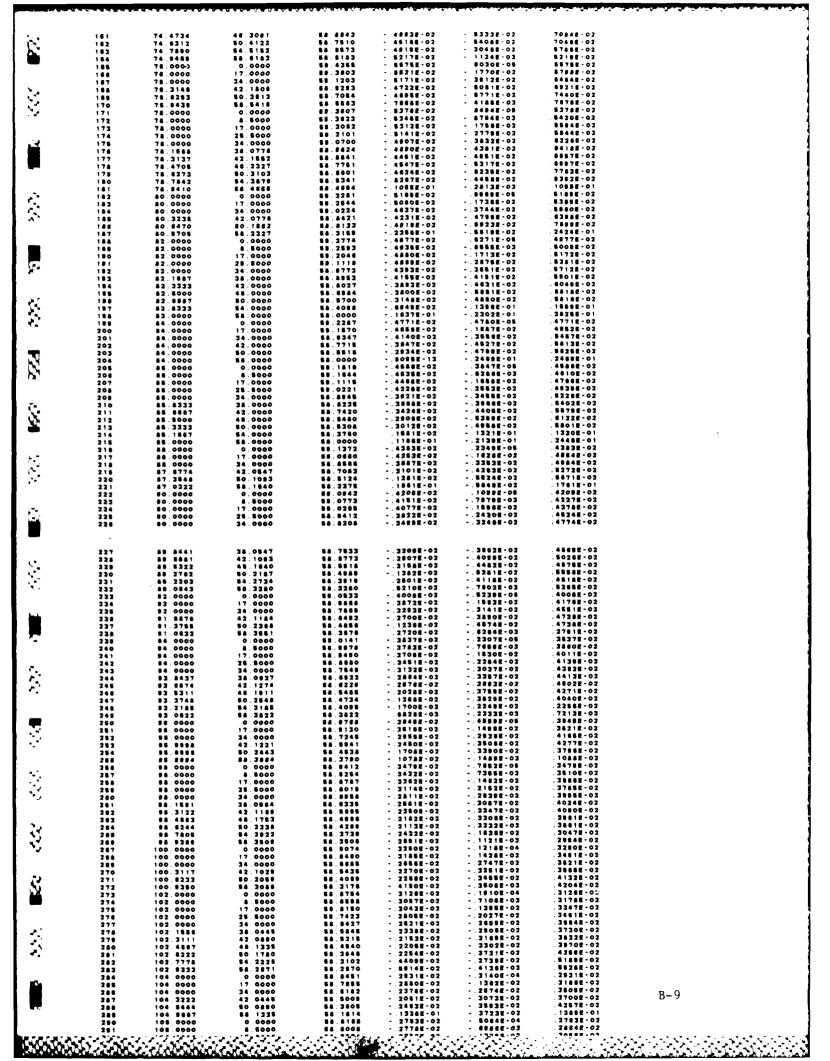
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3847E-03 18338 - 02 7 1632E-02 1730E-02 18428 1788E 1787E 1770E 1031E 9847E 5188E 7898E 1842E-02 1803E-02 1770E-02 1088E-02 8888E-03 8477E-03 0 .0000 17 .0000 34 .0000 42 .0888 50 .1188 50 .1188 50 .1784 0 .0000 34 .0000 34 .0000 34 .0000 34 .0000 17 .0000 17 .0000 17 .0000 17 .0000 17 .0000 42 .0830 17 .0000 42 .0830 42 .0830 42 .0830 42 .0830 50 .0000 42 .0830 50 .0000 42 .0830 50 .0000 50 .1081 50 .00000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .00000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .00000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .00000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .00000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .00000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .00000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .00000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .00000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .0000 50 .00000 50 . 164 .0000 144 .0000 144 .0000 143 .8588 143 .8588 145 .0000 145 .0000 145 .0000 145 .0000 145 .0000 145 .0000 146 .3100 146 .3100 146 .8188 146 .8288 146 .9288 146 .0000 4500E-6040E-0152E-1232E-1771E 02 18882-87332-83818-10088-79028-15018-17488-148 0000 148 0000 148 0000 148 3087 148 8185 148 8282 150 0000 180 0000 180 0000 180 180 180 186 180 188 180 8180 180 7738 180 8180 180 8180 180 9000 182 0000 1813E-02 2788E-03 2744E-03 2700E-03 2478E-03 2478E-03 2121E-03 3549E-03 4878E-03 2782E-03 1837E-02 1837E-03 1482E-03 1 18738 2148E .2048E .1882E .3342E .4839E .7840E 02 2812E-02 1837E-03 8041E-03 1830E-03 8024E-03 7008E-02 8229E-04 8125E-04 8125E-04 7412E-04 7412E-04 8423E-04 1323E-03 1448E-02 4880E-04 4483E-04 . 1767E-02 . 2081E-02 . 2307E-02 . 9248E-08 . 3900E-03 . 7824E-03 . 1784E -. 2188E -. 7378E -. 9229E -. 4006E -. 7876E -. 1141E -. 1483E -58. 2802 58. 2013 58. 0917 58. 4980 58. 4880 58. 4880 58. 4812 58. 4918 58. 2918 58. 2918 58. 2918 58. 2918 58. 2918 58. 2918 58. 4408 58. 4407 58. 4807 58. 3442 58. 2790 58. 3441 58. 2918 58. 29 42 0238 80 0470 85 0708 0 000 17 0000 28 5000 17 0000 28 5000 42 0000 84 0000 84 0000 84 0000 84 0000 85 0000 0000 17 0000 28 0000 00 0000 17 0000 28 0000 17 0000 28 0000 17 0000 28 5000 17 0000 28 5000 152 3214 152 5428 152 5431 784 0000 154 0000 154 0000 154 0000 154 0000 154 1500 154 1500 154 1500 155 0000 155 0000 155 0000 155 0000 155 0000 155 0000 155 0000 155 0000 48234887890123488789011234887890112348878901123488789011 1481E 1630E 1748E 2067E 1782E 4846E 788E 18328-17808-20718-17838-80878-83728-48848-78388-- 03 - 02 - 02 74228 4453E-04 3823E-04 1888E-04 8821E-04 2728E-12 1306E-06 1048E-06 155 .5000 158 .0000 158 .0000 158 .0000 158 .0000 158 .0000 158 .0000 158 .0000 158 .0000 158 .0000 512 513 514 518 518 518 518 518 518 520 521 • .0000 1828E 1786E 1768E-05 2865E-05 2016E-04 9435E-04 1197E-03 3158E-04 - 02 - 02 - 02 - 02 2083E PACE COMPUTAT 20000E+01 102402+00 0.8 DISCHARGE 05 DISCHARGE OOE : BI D S 22000E+02 DISCHARGE NE = 317 20 . 10000E+01 DQ B-11 00010 M61M## .